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DOCTORAL DISSERTATION

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**THE ROLE OF TRANSLATION IN LEARNING AND TEACHING ENGLISH AS A  
FOREIGN LANGUAGE: THE CASE OF EU TRANSLATION**

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## Statement of authorship

The doctoral dissertation titled *The role of translation in learning and teaching English as a foreign language: The case of EU translation* has been submitted for the PhD degree at Eötvös Loránd University. I, the undersigned Adrienn Károly, PhD candidate in the Translation Studies Doctoral Programme, hereby declare that:

- I am the sole author of this dissertation, which I have prepared while under supervision at Eötvös Loránd University.
- My dissertation does not contain work extracted from a thesis or dissertation previously submitted for a higher degree to this or any other university.
- Any ideas or other material from the work of other people included in my thesis are fully acknowledged in accordance with the standard referencing practices.
- To the best of my knowledge, this dissertation does not infringe upon anyone's copyright nor violate any proprietary rights.

This dissertation includes excerpts from two original research articles written in English that have been previously published in international peer-reviewed journals and are protected by copyright. I certify that I have obtained a written permission from the copyright owner to include the above materials in this dissertation.

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# 1. INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 Topic and relevance of the research

In translation studies, a considerable volume of research addresses different aspects of professional translator training (e.g., González Davies 2004, Gouadec 2007, Hatim and Mason 1997, Kelly 2005, Kiraly 1995, Malmkjær 2004, Newmark 1993, Nord 1997, 2005, Tennent 2005), including topics related to translation in the European Union (e.g., Koskinen 2000, 2008, Wagner, Bech and Martinez 2012). Professional translation, including pedagogical issues, is also widely researched in Hungary, with several studies focusing on such aspects as assessment (e.g., Dróth 2001, 2011, Fischer 2011, Klaudy 1996, 2003, 2005), the role and function of norms (e.g., Heltai 2004, 2005a, 2005b, Klaudy 1994a), revision (Horváth 2009, 2011) or the process of text comprehension (Dudits 2011) and text production (e.g., Károly 2008, Klaudy 2004a, 2004b, 2007). Several Hungarian studies focus on various aspects of language use and translation in the European Union, often from a pedagogical perspective (e.g., Fischer 2008, 2009, 2010a, Jablonkai 2010a, 2010b, Klaudy and Bart 2003, Trebits 2008, 2009, Trebits and Fischer 2009, Várnai 2005). Despite the wide range of research topics, teaching translation outside the professional context seems to be a heavily under-researched area in translation studies even though translation (in the strict sense of the word) and language mediation (in a broader sense) are ever more common practices in contemporary multilingual and multicultural societies, including Hungary (e.g., Major 2000, Sturcz 2003, 2010). Individuals who are not translation professionals increasingly engage in a wide range of formal, semi-formal and informal (often ad-hoc) translation activities in different domains of language use (e.g., educational, occupational, public/social or personal), in interactions at various levels and for a variety of purposes (e.g., Calvo 2011, Cook 2010, Jääskeläinen, Kujamäki and Mäkisalo 2011, Pérez-González and Susam-Saraeva 2012, Phipps and Gonzalez 2004).

In the Call for Papers for the *Second International Conference on Non-Professional Interpreting and Translation*, held in 2014 in Germany, the organisers claimed that non-professional translation – which they defined as the translational action of individuals who do not receive pay for it –, is and will remain the most widespread form of translation. They also emphasised that non-professional translation is not necessarily of lower quality, and non-professional translators often have sufficient skills to perform a given translation task.



Concerning quality – which is a rather ambiguous notion in translation –, it should be stressed that several factors and variables need to be considered when determining the acceptability of a translation in a particular situation. Some scholars have suggested using relevance theory as a general framework to assess the quality of translations (Gutt 1991, Heltai 2009, 2014), which also seems to be useful in the case of non-professional translation.

Despite its growing relevance, non-professional translation is typically not associated with respected practices, and these activities, including pedagogical issues related to the non-professional context, are still underrated and underresearched topics in mainstream translation studies. At the same time, even though the use of translation in foreign language learning and teaching (along with texts that have specialised content) is receiving increased attention, it is still a marginal and highly debated issue, as pointed out not only on the international research scene (e.g., Calvo 2011, Colina 2002, Cook 2010, Hall and Cook 2012, Kemp 2012, Malmkjær 1998, 2004) but also in several Hungary studies (e.g., Dévény 2008, 2011, Feketéné Silye 2004, Fischer 2009, 2010b, Heltai 1995, Illés 2011, Klaudy 1987a, 2003, 2004a, Kurtán and Silye 2006, Sárdi 2011, 2012, Sewell 2002, Szabari 2001, Vermes 2003, 2010). In particular, there seems to be considerable controversy surrounding the role of translation in advanced foreign language learning in instructed settings, primarily in the context of higher education, as evidenced by different practices throughout the world, and even across Europe.

At the core of the debate lies the issue of conceptualising translation. Those involved in professional translator training view translation as a professional activity and argue that translation is a complex *competence*, comprising a number of distinct but related sub-competences (one of which is linguistic competence). Following from this, they insist that the development of translation competence should only start when someone has acquired a very high level of language competence. On the other hand, in foreign language learning and teaching, oral and written translation (if at all mentioned) are typically seen as crosslingual *skills* mobilising the four macro-skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) (e.g., Bárdos 2000, Stern 1992) although some researchers claim that *mediation* (which refers to real-life activities and language testing tasks in which the aim is to render the main message of the source text) is as an independent skill (Dévény 2008, 2013, Lado 1961). It further complicates the situation that translation is often regarded as a language *activity* rather than a skill (e.g., the Common European Framework of Reference by the Council of Europe 2001). Unfortunately, the conceptual ambiguity adds to the noticeable confusion in real life. Those without direct experience in translation, including foreign language students, tend to hold

rather simplistic and overgeneralised views of translation. For example, a Hungarian study on the natural translation ability of elementary and secondary school students has revealed that these students often perceive translation as an easier task than what their actual performance scores would suggest (Lesznyák 2007a).

In the Hungarian context, Klaudy (2004a) pointed out already a decade ago that due to Hungary's EU membership, teaching language mediation skills as well as using EU texts (in a broad sense, referring to texts that deal with EU topics) should become an integral part of foreign language education at the tertiary level or even earlier. In 2007, when the Bologna reforms were implemented in the Hungarian higher education system, most foreign language (particularly English) bachelor's programmes decided to incorporate translation and/or ESP courses (including English for EU purposes) into the curriculum, typically as part of a specialisation module. This tendency seems to reflect the growing awareness of the importance of translation and mediation skills as well as EU-related knowledge in the increasingly multicultural and multilingual European context.

In the academic literature, more and more researchers have begun to emphasise that integrating translation with advanced foreign language learning and teaching has several educational benefits. In a recent article, Kemp (2012) has convincingly argued that translation could become a central part of modern foreign language degree programmes because it serves at least three useful purposes: it is a valuable tool for developing language competence, an essential and practical skill in its own right and an effective means to integrate the rather disconnected components of modern foreign language degree courses (linguistic and literary/cultural studies). By promoting such generic skills as critical analysis or self-reflection, translation is believed to enable cross-curricular learning and make the language degree a better integrated whole (Kemp 2012, Peverati 2013). In the same vein, according to Cook (2010), using translation in language teaching can be linked to the main curriculum philosophies (technological, social, humanistic and academic).

Regardless of the convincing arguments put forward recently, the use of translation has been a highly dismissed topic in prevailing theories of second language acquisition and foreign language learning<sup>1</sup> as well as in the mainstream global practice of English Language Teaching (ELT), which are still dominated by theories and norms stemming from

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<sup>1</sup> Second Language Acquisition (SLA) generally refers to the process of learning another (nonnative) language (L2) after the native or primary language (L1) in a classroom context or in a naturalistic environment where L2 is spoken, while foreign language learning is the process of learning another (nonnative) language in the environment of one's native language (Gass, Behney and Plonsky 2013: 4–5). In this dissertation, the latter term will be used as in the case of English, it is more typical in the European context.

monolingual teaching principles (Cook 2010, Widdowson 2003). On the other hand, current research in applied linguistics suggests a growing awareness of the fundamental role of translation – particularly from and into English –, as a form of cultural interaction between individuals and groups as well as between local languages/cultures and the global English-speaking community. Thus, translation today can no longer be restricted to the practice of professionals, but should rather be viewed as an essential skill and an everyday activity. Translation skills seem to have undergone a similar evolution to foreign language or IT skills, which were considered highly specialised expertise in the past, possessed only by few, while today they are seen as core skills (Calvo 2011).

Concerning the importance of translation in an individual's overall language competence, recent theories of language can help to elucidate the similarities between the functions of language and translation. In recent approaches, language is viewed not merely as a conveyor of a fixed message but as a cognitive activity whereby individuals understand how meaning is created and ultimately interpret others and themselves. This idea is encapsulated in the term *linguaging* (Swain 2008), which refers to “the process of making meaning and shaping knowledge and experience through language” (2008: 98). Approached this way, the wide variety of real-life translation activities can be seen as examples of linguaging across cultures. Adopting the same perspective, Kramsch (2006a) has pointed out that advanced language competence today should involve much more than linguistic proficiency. She argued that besides knowing how to communicate meaning, language learners should “understand the practice of meaning making itself”. (2006b: 251).

From a language learning perspective, communicative translation activities appear to be excellent means for achieving the goals outlined above by bringing the contrastive analysis of two languages and cultures into the classroom. Translation vividly demonstrates the diversity of meanings and different ways of seeing the world as well as the complexity of communication and the importance of the pragmatic aspects of language (Illés 2011, Widdowson 2003). Interestingly, however, it seems that the general disregard for translation in foreign language learning and teaching cannot be justified by rational arguments. As Widdowson (2003) put it, “Translation has been too long in exile, for all kinds of reasons which (...) have little to do with any considered pedagogic principle. It is time it was given a fair and informed appraisal (Widdowson 2003: 160)” Recently, the European Commission's Directorate-General for Translation (2013) conducted a large-scale European survey in seven EU Member States, with the aim of finding out what foreign and second language teachers (including the primary, secondary and tertiary levels) think about translation, and how they

use it in their own teaching. It is a promising sign that researchers in the project included such well-known translation studies scholars as Anthony Pym and Kirsten Malmkjær. The findings seem to confirm Widdowson's (2003) claim mentioned above. The findings have revealed that European teachers in general tend to avoid translation in the foreign language classroom (especially at the level of primary education) and prefer activities that they perceive as more communicative although there are encouraging signs of university teachers using translation in a functional way. According to the researchers, the diversity of views and practices is closely related to the different conceptualisations of translation, which in turn, are influenced not only by cultural but also by ideological factors.

Recently Colina (2002, 2003) pointed out that there is a lack of interaction between translation studies and foreign language learning and teaching, which probably stems from a mutual misunderstanding of the other discipline as well as from deeply engrained notions and research paradigms. However, since these disciplines have common interests and goals, Colina has underlined that they could mutually enrich the knowledge accumulated in their own fields. She suggests four possible ways of developing closer ties: (1) conducting more interdisciplinary empirical research, (2) more systematically integrating translation into the modern foreign language degree (including internships or community service), (3) using a wide range of communicative translation activities in the foreign language classroom, and (4) more widely applying the results of process-oriented research on reading comprehension and writing (in foreign and second language learning contexts) in professional translator training programmes (Colina 2002: 17).

Despite the growing theoretical interest and the variety of existing practices, empirical research on the role of translation in foreign language learning and teaching is still scarce on both the international and Hungarian research scene. Particularly little attention seems to be directed towards translation courses that are incorporated into the English bachelor's programme and are part of an EU specialisation module. These translation courses can have multiple objectives: they can aim to increase students' (foreign and native) language competence, extend their general and EU-specific background knowledge, develop their transferable generic skills or refine their translation skills in a functional and communicative way. This means that translation (including oral and written translation tasks both from and into the foreign language) is viewed not solely as a (language) learning tool but as a useful and practical skill in itself. It should be emphasised that this pedagogical setting is essentially different from professional translator training because the primary aim of these translation courses is not to prepare students for the translation market to work as professional translators

– although it is certainly one possibility in the future if a student wishes to go on to professional training and/or take a qualifying exam after acquiring sufficient experience. Hungarian students graduating from foreign language programmes (including BA programmes) typically find employment in a wide variety of fields (e.g., administration, customer service, business, marketing, tourism), where they not only need a high level of foreign language competence and field-specific knowledge but should also be able to use their native language effectively and appropriately (e.g., Dévény and Szőke 2007, Feketéné Silye 2002, 2004, Major 2000, Sturcz 2003, 2010). In addition, they are often expected to perform various oral and/or written translation and language mediation tasks, sometimes even in formal, public situations. On the other hand, students who continue their studies after obtaining their first degree often enroll in programmes that are related to language teaching, professional translation and interpretation or other fields where intercultural communication skills are essential. These tendencies suggest that the syllabus of translation courses within foreign language programmes need to be tailored to the students' proficiency level, needs, interests, also considering real-life practices and industry expectations. It is important to emphasise that developing translation and mediation skills within the modern foreign languages degree does not diminish the need for professional, high quality translator training programmes, which are longer, more vocationally-oriented, and prepare students specifically for the translation market by awarding a professional degree.

## 1.2 Purpose statement and research design

The research reported in this dissertation has an overall *qualitative* approach, and uses both theoretical and empirical methods. The theoretical (secondary) research aims to critically discuss various aspects of the central phenomenon. The empirical (primary) research has an *instrumental case study* design, in which the case serves as a strategic tool to explore and provide deeper understanding of the central phenomenon under investigation (Grandy 2010, Stake 1995, Verschuren 2003). Thus, the case in its natural context is seen as an instance of this wider phenomenon. The overall purpose of the secondary research is to (re)examine the role of translation in foreign language learning and teaching – a topic at the interface of several disciplines –, which still remains seriously under-researched both in translation studies and in foreign language learning and teaching. The empirical research primarily aims to explore the potentials of using communicative translation along with EU texts in the new

English bachelor's programme by analysing a selected case from a number of perspectives (the programme is described in detail in Section 3.2). Related to the case study research design, Elger (2010: 3–5) has distinguished between *external* and *internal contextualization*, both of which are applied in this research. Through external contextualisation, the case is mapped within its wider social context, while internal contextualisation enabled a more comprehensive analysis of the case, focusing on several different aspects and their interrelationships. There are two central questions guiding the research, which are refined into specific research questions (see 4.1). The two central questions are:

- (1) What are the roles of translation and EU texts in learning and teaching English as a foreign language at the tertiary level?
- (2) How can translation be effectively integrated into the English bachelor's degree programme in Hungary?

In the different stages of the empirical data collection and analysis, an *embedded mixed methods approach* is adopted (Creswell 2013: 16), combining qualitative and quantitative forms of inquiry in order to have a more complete understanding of the issue under investigation. Thus, the qualitative and quantitative data are embedded within a larger case study design. The underlying philosophical worldview for using a mixed-methods strategy is pragmatism, which emphasises the practical nature of knowledge and focuses on concrete phenomena as they occur in their natural context with the intention of understanding the research problem in more detail and seek workable solutions to it (Creswell 2013: 10–11). Stake (1995) emphasises that using multiple perspectives and sources of data – which Denzin (2006) refers to as method and data *triangulation* – increases the credibility and trustworthiness of the presentation of the case.

To accomplish its purpose, the dissertation first critically reviews the academic literature on non-professional translation and its use in foreign language learning and teaching, and then presents the new empirical data collected in a particular educational setting. The theoretical discussion synthesises and critically evaluates relevant ideas and arguments put forward in translation studies, foreign language learning and teaching and several interdisciplinary research fields focusing on language issues (such as multilingualism, intercultural communication and English as a lingua franca) with the aim of bridging these disciplines and fields. The theoretical part primarily serves to establish the importance of the topic and identify central issues and arguments by investigating the phenomenon in its broad

social and cultural context. More specifically, it sets out to uncover and discuss underlying assumptions and hidden agendas in current foreign language educational policies and practices, as well as to emphasise valid but largely dismissed arguments related to the status of non-professional translation within translation studies and the use of translation and EU texts in foreign language learning and teaching. Furthermore, it aims to re-examine the concepts of and interrelationships between translation, mediation, translation competence, communicative competence and intercultural competence in the changing global and European context. It also investigates the most important pedagogical issues related to teaching translation within the English bachelor's programme. The theoretical research has implications mainly for translation studies and foreign language learning and teaching, emphasising the importance for these disciplines to establish closer ties with each other and with other related fields.

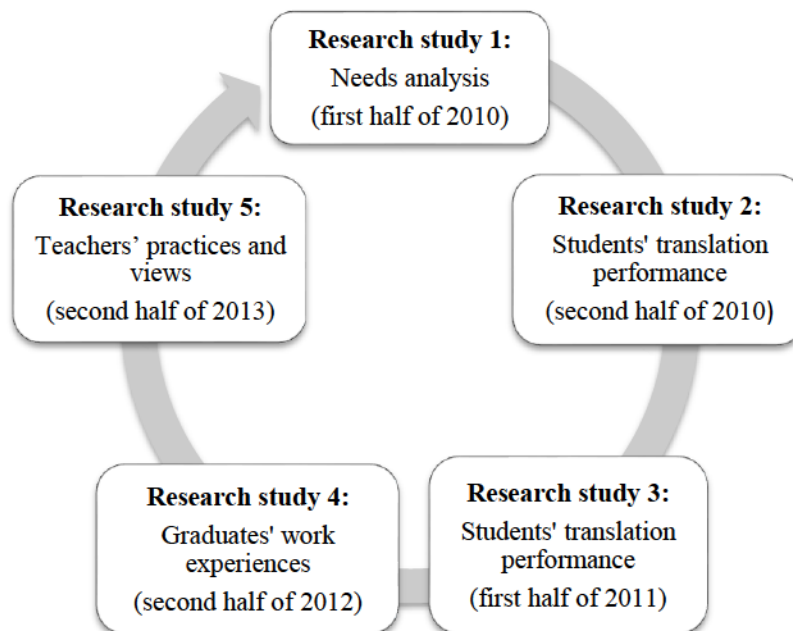
Since the topic of using communicative translation in foreign language learning and teaching has attracted an increased general research attention in the past decade, and particularly in the last few years, the secondary research continued throughout the whole research process so that the most recent theoretical ideas and empirical results could be included in the analysis. Thus, theory in this dissertation was used in two ways. On the one hand, theory provided an initial framework for investigating the phenomenon, and helped to relate the case to the ongoing academic dialogue as well as to shape the design of the empirical studies. On the other hand, the themes and patterns emerging from the empirical studies were linked with the most recent literature to help interpret the findings and assess their implications. At the same time, the results of the research were continuously fed back into practice in the context of the selected programme. In this sense, the research can also be considered action research as it aimed to explore and improve an existing practice.

The empirical research comprises five studies that set out to explore a particular educational programme in its natural context. The concrete institution is Eszterházy Károly College in Eger, where an elective 50-credit EU specialisation module was introduced in 2007 as part of the reformed English bachelor's programme. At that time, I had been working at the Department for English Studies for six years, and I was involved in the design and implementation of the new EU specialisation module. In the phases of data collection and analysis, the research employs a variety of qualitative and quantitative instruments and methods, which serve to enhance data validity (Creswell 2013, Mackey and Gass 2012). Besides using ethnographic methods of data collection, the research includes textual analysis, more specifically the analysis of a small corpus of translations of EU-texts produced by

Hungarian EFL learners. Small corpus analysis has been increasingly acknowledged as a powerful tool to gain information about authentic language use, including learner language in translation, which can guide material and syllabus development as well as the selection of instructional methods (Flowerdew 2005, Ghadessy, Henry and Roseberry 2001).

The five studies explore translation in a particular English bachelor's programme from various perspectives. More specifically, they focus on the Hungarian EFL learners' preliminary needs, views and perceptions, as well as their translational text production and their post-graduation work experiences with regard to translation and the use of EU-texts. In addition, the studies also aim to find out about teachers' instructional methods, views and experiences related to teaching translation at this level. The actual data collection procedures emerged as the research progressed, and in each successive stage of analysis, different specific aspects of the phenomenon were investigated from the perspective of the students (language learners) and/or the teachers, also considering the wider aspects of course design and syllabus development. *Figure 1* illustrates the research cycle, showing the five empirical research studies conducted between 2010 and 2013.

*Figure 1. The empirical research cycle*





### 1.3 Preliminary assumptions guiding the research

Since the research has an overall *qualitative* approach, it does not aim to test specific initial hypotheses. Nevertheless, it is possible to articulate certain preliminary assumptions emerging primarily from the literature and my own experience, which guided the design of the empirical research. One underlying assumption is that translation might have a key role in the reformed English bachelor's programme in Hungary because it is not only a natural and effective means of developing communicative competence and generic skills but is a useful and practical skill in its own right. Even though translation courses integrated into foreign language programmes fall outside the context of professional training, it is assumed that these courses can be made more effective and meaningful if they are based on current notions and theories from translation studies (such as conceptual models of translation competence) and incorporate pedagogical frameworks widely used in professional translator training (particularly functional-textual and process-based approaches) along with principles from constructivist and social constructivist theories of learning. It is believed that in the context of foreign language learning and teaching, translation is best viewed as a multi-componential competence and as a form of intercultural communication. Thus, translation should not be separated from its pragmatic and cultural context, which greatly influences the translator's decisions and strategies as well as the overall acceptability of the translation. This is a basic principle not only in communicative language teaching but also in discourse-oriented functional approaches in translation pedagogy (e.g., Nord 2005). It is also assumed that using a variety of functional translation tasks (based on authentic texts and real communicative situations) is compatible with the principles of communicative language teaching as they help students to achieve a higher (and deeper) level of language competence.

With regard to the relationship between communicative competence and translation competence, the dissertation is based on the assumption that in this context it is beneficial to view translation as qualitatively more than an innate skill (a predisposition) and the summation of language competences (or the application of macro-skills) since it has a unique component at its core: a language and culture-specific *transfer competence*, which is closely linked to problem solving, creativity and translation routine. According to Toury (2012: 283), transfer competence enables the development of translation as a distinct skill, and the process can be facilitated by targeted practice combined with diverse forms of process- and product-oriented feedback. Translation is thus seen as a learnt and norm-oriented behaviour, which

can be explicitly taught, resulting in a move from a mechanical, *sign-oriented* perspective to a deeper, *sense-oriented* approach. Lörcher (1992) defined the more advanced level of translation competence (i.e., *sense-oriented* translation) as the “individual’s ability to transfer texts equivalently on various levels according to a given purpose/aim and with regard to sense, communicative function(s), style, text type, and/or other factors, or to deliberately violate postulates of equivalence for a certain purpose” (Lörcher 1992: 148). This idea clearly encapsulates the main tenets of the relevance theoretical approach to translation (Gutt 1991) and underpins Károly’s (2008) model of *genre transfer competence* (see 2.5.1.2). This conceptualisation of translation also applies to communicative *language mediation* tasks (for example oral or written summary) (see Dévény 2013, Fischer 2010b, Heltai 1995, Lörcher 1992).

Besides developing translation competence per se (particularly transfer competence, i.e., translation routine and creativity), the use of a wide range of well-designed, communicative translation activities in foreign language learning and teaching is thought to have positive effects on several components of communicative and intercultural competence along with a number of *transferable generic skills* (Peverati 2013), which support learning in various subject areas in a variety of educational and real-life settings. Previous research has indicated that translation activates and develops various reading strategies (e.g., Dudits 2011, Kern 1994, Shreve et al. 1993, Whyatt 2003), source text comprehension and analysis skills (e.g., Nord 2005, Pellatt 2009), writing skills (e.g., Kim 2011, Kobayashi and Rinnert 1992, Vermes 2003), as well as listening comprehension and speaking skills (in the case of oral translation or oral presentations on various translation-related topics, mentioned by Kelly 2005). Furthermore, translation is believed to increase language awareness and focus on form (e.g., Butzkamm and Caldwell 2009, Duff 1989, Gnutzmann 2009, Snell-Hornby 1985, Whyatt 2009) and to expand vocabulary (e.g., Celik 2003, Harden 2009, Laufer and Girsai 2008) – in the case of EU-texts not only general but also field-specific vocabulary (Jablonkai 2010a). Translation can also improve native language competence (Klaudy 2001) and intercultural competence (e.g., Byram 1997, 2008, 2009, Elorza, 2008, House, 2009b, Modern Language Association Ad Hoc Committee on Foreign Languages 2007, Stiefel 2009) and can lead to the development of a contrastive approach, including a higher genre sensitivity and awareness of the context (e.g., House 2006, Károly 2008, Nord 2005). Translation is also thought to stimulate linguistic creativity and verbal agility (e.g., Cook 2010, Schäffner 1998), to develop an appreciation of literature (Coleman 2004) as well as to enhance problem-solving skills and general learning and communication strategies (e.g., Bergen 2009, House

2000, Hummel 2010, Kelly 2005, Macaro 2006, O'Malley and Chamot 1990, Peverati 2013, Sewell 2002). Finally, by translating texts that have an EU-related topic, students can develop their general and specific background knowledge, which is important not only in the workplace but also in personal life (Klaudy 2004a).

## **1.4 Structure of the dissertation**

The rest of the dissertation is structured as follows. Chapter 2 analyses key issues related to non-professional translation and teaching communicative translation in advanced foreign language education from an interdisciplinary perspective, drawing on current theories and the results of recent empirical research studies from several fields. The main aim of this chapter is to synthesise and critically evaluate the most relevant theories, ideas and arguments put forward in these disciplines. It also seeks to find out how the notions of translation and language mediation are used in different fields and policy documents, and to explore the relationship between the concepts of translation competence, communicative competence and intercultural competence. The analysis also covers central pedagogical issues relevant for the context of teaching translation within foreign language programmes.

Chapter 3 discusses the wider and immediate contexts of the particular Hungarian educational programme that was selected for the empirical research, starting with an analysis of the impacts of the Bologna reforms and moving on to presenting the institutional background of the programme under investigation.

Chapter 4 gives a general description of the overall design of the empirical research, including the research questions, the participants, the research aims and the applied methodology.

The specific aims, methods and results of the individual research studies are presented and discussed in Chapter 5.

Finally, Chapter 6 summarises and evaluates the main findings in relation to the initial assumptions, outlines the major theoretical and pedagogical implications and makes suggestions for further research.

## 2. TRANSLATION AT THE INTERFACE OF DISCIPLINES

### 2.1 Overview

As a result of globalisation and the rapid technological development, translation is increasingly seen as a research topic relevant for a number of disciplines. At the same time, the concepts of translation and translators are gradually changing as they adapt to the emerging new modes of translation. The past few years also mark the birth of a new paradigm in translation studies, referred to as *post-translation studies* by Nergaard and Arduini (2011: 8). In this approach translation is seen not only as a transdisciplinary and dynamic concept but also as a “powerful epistemological instrument for reading and assessing the transformation and exchange of cultures and identities” (Nergaard and Arduini 2011: 14). Several scholars have pointed out that the definition of translation should remain open since translation practices and ideas about translation tend to vary within and across cultures and change over time. Some researchers even argue that translation equivalence is *a posteriori* in nature (Hermans 2007, Toury 2012: 26). Based on Wittgenstein’s idea, Tymoczko (2005, 2007) suggested that translation could be regarded as a ‘cluster concept’, which implies that different translation processes and products share some common core features.

This chapter aims to discuss the most central issues related to non-professional translation and teaching translation outside professional contexts, drawing from various disciplines and fields. Section 2.2 focuses on language issues in the increasingly multicultural and multilingual European context. It starts with synthesising the available literature on English as the international language of communication, exploring its relevance for translation studies and foreign language learning and teaching. This section also includes a critical review of the current research on multilingual communication, with an emphasis on the relationship between the increasing use of English and translation as a form of intercultural communication. Lastly, the section discusses the growing practice of non-professional translation as well as different conceptualisations of translation and language mediation. Section 2.3 takes a closer look at the issue of translation teaching. It first discusses the current place of translation pedagogy in the disciplines of translation studies and foreign language learning and teaching, and analyses the most recent criticisms and arguments, which is followed by an analysis of the various levels and settings of translation teaching. Section 2.4 examines the relationships between translation competence, communicative competence and intercultural competence by comparing and contrasting the most influential theoretical

models along with more recent ideas. Finally, Section 2.5 focuses on pedagogical issues relevant for the design and development of translation courses within the English bachelor's programme, such as the importance of functional approaches to teaching translation, questions related to text selection, teaching and evaluation methods, as well as the role of needs analysis in syllabus design and development.

## **2.2 Language and translation in a multicultural and multilingual Europe**

Throughout the world, English is increasingly used as the language of communication in various domains although language use varies greatly according to the users' cultural and linguistic background and the purpose of communication. In the past decade, researchers have started to emphasise the relevance of bi- and multilingualism research also for translation studies (e.g., Albl-Mikasa 2010, 2013, Cook 2012, Hewson 2009, House and Rehbein 2004, Lanstyák 2003, Lanstyák and Heltai 2012, Mauranen 2012). The use of English as a medium of communication is extremely complex in native contexts, but even more so in bi- and multilingual environments. It may happen, for example, that native speakers of English who live or work in a European country where English is not an official language do not speak the native language(s) spoken in that country, and thus they need translation. Furthermore, when individuals in a communication situation do not speak each other's native language (which is other than English), they often use English as the common language, and the communication often includes various forms of translation. In short, translation can be viewed as an increasingly common, everyday activity, which, however, not only facilitates communication but has several other functions as well. Thus, it seems to be beneficial to approach the topic of teaching translation outside professional settings from an interdisciplinary perspective, focusing first on wider but no less relevant issues.

### **2.2.1 Research into English as the international language of communication and its relevance for translation studies and foreign language learning and teaching**

#### ***2.2.1.1 Approaches to researching global English***

Researchers have used various terms when studying the global use of English, depending on their primary approach and the main research focus. These terms include *English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)* (e.g., Jenkins 2007, Seidlhofer 2004, 2011), *English as an International Language (EIL)* (e.g., Matsuda 2012, McKay 2002, Widdowson 1994), *English as a Global*

*Language* (e.g., Crystal 2003, McKenzie 2010, Nunan 2003), *World Englishes* (e.g., Brutt-Griffler 2002, Kachru 1985, 1992, Kirkpatrick 2007), *Euro-English* (e.g., Modiano 2003, Mollin 2006, Seidlhofer 2001) or more recently *Lingua Franca English (LFE)* (Canagarajah 2007). One important difference between these approaches is whether native speakers of English are seen as discourse participants or not. On the other hand, the role and status of native speakers has gradually changed as research progressed over time. The aim of early *ELF* research was to identify those lexico-grammatical (Seidlhofer 2001) and phonological (Jenkins 2000) features of English that are frequently and systematically used by non-native speakers. Thus, early *ELF* research excluded native speakers, which was later criticised by Kachru and Nelson (2006) on the ground that it neglected the complex nature of the phenomenon of global English. More recently, Jenkins (2009: 41) defined *ELF* as “a means of communication in English between speakers who have different first languages”. Her approach includes native speakers although they are viewed as participants that are more peripheral.

Some researchers highlight the problem of asymmetry in those interactions in which one participant speaks English as a native language but the other one(s) as a second/foreign language. These scholars tend to view the global spread of English as the manifestation of ‘cultural and linguistic imperialism’ (e.g., Phillipson 1992, 2003, 2006, 2008). Phillipson (2008) pointed out that English today should not even be labelled as a *lingua franca* since this term has strong ideological connotations, while international communication is supposed to be symmetrical. Even though these are valid arguments, it should not be forgotten that in the European context English is more often used by non-native speakers to communicate with other non-native speakers in multilingual environments, where power and linguistic identity need to be interpreted differently. Recently, Canagarajah (2013: 7–8) has underlined that the term *multilingual* in fact implies a monolingual approach as it views individuals as users (or learners) of isolated languages. Thus, she suggested using the term *translingual*, which also embraces the heterogeneous, dynamic and transformative nature of contemporary interactions.

Some researchers insist that English is a popular choice in international communication because of its pluricentric character. For example, according to Caviedes (2003), English has a “de-ethnicised and culturally-unbounded quality that allows speakers to use it without automatically identifying with one nation” (2003: 254). Drawing on Widdowson’s (1994) concept of *ownership*, several authors have emphasised that one of the consequences of a language becoming global is that it is no longer owned solely by its native speakers, and non-native speakers voluntarily use it in some or many domains of

communication (e.g., Crystal 2003, Llorca 2004, Medgyes 1999). Studying the historical, linguistic and cultural reasons behind the expansion of English, Brutt-Griffler (2002) concluded that it was the result of *macroacquisition* by whole speech communities. In this process, however, non-native speakers cannot be viewed as passive recipients, who are forced to use a language, but rather as active agents *appropriating* the language.

Along the lines of Caviedes' (2003) idea of the culturally unbounded nature of the English language, House (2003) distinguished between languages for communication and languages for identification. As opposed to languages used for identification, ELF enables communication between speakers whose native language is not English. According to her, English in this role does not pose a threat to multilingualism since native languages are also widely used, primarily for the purpose of identification with a particular culture. This division seems to be useful even though it oversimplifies the rather complex phenomenon of language use. Some (youth) subcultures or social minorities, for instance, tend to use a foreign language for identification, such as members of the Japanese gay community, who prefer to use English to Japanese to express their identity (Harrison 2011). Besides, the idea of using a language merely to express cultural identities and communicate ideas is too simplistic. Language is also a tool of the mind, in the sense that it helps to understand alternative thought processes, behaviours and mentalities, and ultimately serves to reflect on ourselves (Kramsch 2011, Swain 2008). In the European context, even though national, cultural and/or ethnic identities are still strongly connected to language – often leading to problematic situations –, individual identities as well as communities and cultures are becoming more and more heterogeneous as a result of increased mobility and intercultural communication. In these contexts, language is becoming an important tool to understand and accept differences. More recently, Pennycook (2012: 138) even questioned the distinction between native and non-native speakers (and thus between first and second languages), seeing these concepts as ideological constructs. The phenomenon of multiple and heterogeneous identities, however, should not be seen as threatening. As Smith (1983) expressed it, “The spread of English is not a homogenizing factor which causes cultural differences to disappear, but the use of English offers a medium to express and explain these differences” (as cited in Kachru 1992: 41). Nevertheless, it has far-reaching consequences for the goals of foreign language learning since in general the main purpose of using English is no longer to identify with the culture of English-speaking countries but to enable or facilitate communication and most importantly to promote understanding.

Drawing on the theoretical advances in the field of linguistics, and based particularly on Hymes's (1974) and Bakhtin's (1981) ideas, applied linguistics research gradually moved away from a predominantly cognitive perspective. Contemporary researchers emphasise that language can no longer be seen as a fixed and abstract system of decontextualised rules that we acquire or learn, but rather as a locally situated dynamic social act (Atkinson 2011, Block 2003, 2007, Pennycook 2010). The so-called *social turn* (Block 2003) has led to the emergence of approaches that underline the social aspects of communication, and view language as an essentially heterogeneous (multi- or rather translingual) phenomenon, which implies the multiplicity of usages in specific situations that have their own unique features even in the case of one language (Canagarajah 2013, Dufva et al. 2011). It has also been pointed out that when English is used as a lingua franca, the success of communication does not necessarily depend on the language competence of the participants, but increasingly on the mutually negotiated use of language in a given situation, as well as on the non-verbal elements of communication (Canagarajah 2007). The social dimensions of language use are emphasised also in revised notions of language (or communicative) competence, adopting a post-structuralist approach, which are discussed in more detail in 2.4.2.

The developments in the theory of language and language acquisition emphasising the role of the pragmatic and cultural context along with individual subject positions in intercultural communication have important implications for the theory and practice of foreign language learning and teaching, which are still largely based on monolingual principles and native-speaker norms (Hall and Cook 2012, Levine 2011). In their critical overview of *own-language*<sup>2</sup> use in language learning and teaching, Hall and Cook (2012) concluded that the situation might be ripe for a major paradigm shift in the theory of SLA and the practice of ELT because the goals of language learning have radically changed. They have underlined that most people who learn English today do not (necessarily) want to sound like native speakers or integrate into native environments. Instead, the main goal is to be able to communicate with others while maintaining, expressing and reflecting on one's own identity. These developments point to the need for re-evaluating the fundamental principles of foreign language learning and teaching by considering the multitude of usages and perspectives inherent in bi- and multilingual intercultural communication and re-examining the role of translation in language learning. A paradigm shift in the theory of foreign language learning

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<sup>2</sup> The authors use the term *own language* instead of the problematic terms of native language, mother tongue, first language, while *new language* is used instead of the terms of second language, foreign language, or target language.



and teaching would not only reflect a more up-to-date and realistic view of language and language use but could also help non-professional forms of translation (including its teaching contexts) gain more acknowledgment within the academic discipline of translation studies.

### ***2.2.1.2 Connections between translation studies and ELF research***

In translation studies, more and more attention is directed towards English used as a lingua franca (ELF). Recently it has been pointed out that ELF has important implications particularly for translator and interpreter training (e.g., House 2013, Taviano 2010, 2013). In a thought-provoking article, Cook (2012) investigated common interests and connections between ELF research and translation studies. He emphasised that both fields are concerned with cross-linguistic communication in contemporary globalised contexts (where the number of speakers continues to be on the rise). According to Cook, the two disciplines also have a similar course of development, and in fact, they can be viewed as ‘disobedient children’, struggling to move away from their ‘parent’ discipline. ELF gradually became independent and separate from variationist sociolinguistics and Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). Similarly, contemporary translation studies slowly moved away from a text- and equivalence-centred linguistic/semantic theory of translation and adopted a more functional, pragmatic orientation. Another common feature mentioned by Cook is that both disciplines reject the use of abstract, pre-existing and prescriptive categories when judging quality, and they both emphasise that communication depends largely on the context. Finally, Cook argued that both fields could be seen as divisions of applied linguistics. He cited Brumfit’s (1995) definition, according to which applied linguistics is “the theoretical and empirical investigation of real-world problems in which language is a central issue” (1995: 27). Cook has pointed out that language and translation seem to be central to a wide range of contemporary social issues “where there is a need for international communication or inter-community negotiation and any situation where individual speakers of different languages need to communicate with each other” (Cook 2012: 257). Thus, translation studies and ELF should be at the core of applied linguistics. However, Cook also underlined that without expanding their range and sharing their knowledge, these disciplines risk occupying a more peripheral position than the importance of their research scope would suggest.

According to Cook (2012), one possible reason for the lack of cooperation is the increasing tendency towards specialisation in contemporary academic life, striving for deeper understanding in specific and narrow fields of enquiry. This, however, runs the risk that knowledge becomes fragmented and academics do not look beyond their disciplinary

boundaries. Cook sees this as rather ironic because adopting a cross-disciplinary and holistic approach is generally considered desirable in scientific research. Luckily, as he points out, the situation is slowly changing, and applied linguistics in general seems to be more and more open to topics related to translation.

It seems that some of the central concepts and theories in translation studies can help to explain certain phenomena studied by ELF researchers. Two conceptual tools that Cook (2012) mentions are global translation strategies (*domestication* and *foreignisation*) and Evren-Zohar's (1979) Polysystem Theory. In translation studies, domestication is a global translation strategy, but according to Cook, the same principle underpins the traditional (and still dominant) approach to teaching English as a foreign language, which "seeks to domesticate English-language learners, cutting them off in their studies from their own language and identity" (Cook 2012: 248). By explicitly or implicitly promoting native speaker norms, such important aspects of language learning as identity and individual factors of language use are often completely disregarded. If, however, English as a *Lingua Franca* is accepted as a valid variety, Cook argues that success will no longer mean conforming to native-speaker linguistic norms but accomplishing communication and other goals.

The conceptualization of change in Evren-Zohar's (1979) Polysystem Theory is another idea that can be borrowed from translation studies to explain how the global system of the English language works (Cook 2012: 251–154). Evren-Zohar (1979) claimed that change was a natural phenomenon in every system, arising from the interaction between sub-systems. Change usually starts in an area on the periphery and spreads towards the centre. In the case of the English language, this marginal area is what India-born American linguist Kachru (1985) referred to as the *expanding circle*. In Kachru's (1985) model, the use of English across cultures is represented as three concentric circles. The expanding circle is the outermost one, including countries (or regions) where English is not official but is widely used in certain key domains. However, as Cook argues, in Kachru's model change is thought to originate and spread from the *inner circle* (where English is the primary language) towards the periphery and not the other way around, a direction that may not apply any longer. Another basic tenet of the Polysystem Theory is the difference between central (canonical) and marginal (non-canonical) statuses in a system. The lack of order on the periphery is seen as having a stimulating effect on the whole system, and major transformations are believed to start from here. That is exactly how the status of translated texts has changed, and how translated texts invariably influence the system of literature in every culture. Cook (2012) has pointed out that the interaction between English and other languages through translation is

similar to the interaction between English spoken as a native language and as a lingua franca: ELF has slowly destabilised the canonical view of the English language in several ways. It has not only stimulated changes in the language itself but has also challenged traditional views on language variation and language change, as well as on the way the English language is best taught and tested.

As much as the field of ELF can benefit from insights from translation studies, the reverse is also true. The academic discipline of translation studies is inherently connected to ELF research not only because the spread of English affects the role of translation, but also because the work of translators and interpreters increasingly involves non-native varieties of English. More and more non-native speakers of English engage in translation and interpretation, and the proportion of English texts written by non-native speakers is also growing. The role of non-native teachers in ELT also has direct implications for translation pedagogy (see Medgyes 1999, Widdowson 1994, 2003).

In the past decade, there have been positive signs indicating the growing recognition of the relevance of ELF research for translation studies. For example, translation journals often suggest research topics at the interface of ELF and translation studies. One such topic is the double role of English as a global and local language, which may challenge the traditional way of thinking about the relationship between language and culture<sup>3</sup>. Translation from and into English as a lingua franca – including research into language use and translation in EU institutions –, or the use of English by non-native speakers in a wide range of formal and informal situations – often including translation – are also interesting research topics. Relay interpreting through English or the growing amount of non-professional global translation practices (including *crowdsourcing* or *fansubbing* from and into English) could also be investigated from an interdisciplinary perspective. Finally, empirical research could further explore the way global English and new technologies affect the translation profession and people's attitudes towards translation and the status of translators.

### **2.2.2 Research into multilingual communication and its relevance for translation studies and foreign language learning and teaching**

Multilingualism research focuses on different forms of communication in multilingual social, educational and workplace settings (Apfelbaum and Meyer 2010). As pointed out earlier, in

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<sup>3</sup> The topic of English as a local language in post-colonial contexts is discussed in detail by Higgins (2009).

these contexts various forms of translation are used. This implies that translation cannot be viewed as the encounter of languages/cultures through dehumanised texts or as a textual practice reserved for professionals, but rather as an essential social activity (Phipps and Gonzalez 2004). This section gives a critical overview of the most recent developments in the research field of multilingual communication, particularly in the European context, with the intention of exploring the relationships between multilingualism and the growing practice of non-professional translation.

### ***2.2.2.1 Forms of multilingual communication***

In the past decades, studying various aspects of multilingualism<sup>4</sup> has become an active interdisciplinary research field particularly in Europe. However, some researchers have pointed out that the studies seem to share a set of underlying assumptions, which may stem from a lack of knowledge or consideration of recent critical ideas and arguments in other fields (Zeevaert and ten Thije 2007). According to Zeevaert and ten Thije (2007), a common starting point in multilingualism research is that multilingualism is a recent phenomenon related to globalization and increased mobility. However, as they point out, before monolingualism became the norm in Europe (after the birth of nation states), multilingualism was a widespread and natural phenomenon. Another widely held belief - which was mentioned also by Cook (2012) – is that the key to successful communication is to acquire near-native language competence. The authors emphasise that near-native proficiency alone does not guarantee understanding, and thus it is necessary to develop certain other competences, such as metalinguistic skills or intercultural understanding. These ideas increasingly occur in recent theoretical discussions in a number of fields although it seems that in actual practice it is difficult to eradicate old habits and principles. Thirdly, Zeevaert and ten Thije (2007) argued that there seems to be an underlying premise that using English as a lingua franca is the only solution to multilingualism. The authors note that even though English is the most widely spoken foreign language in Europe, there is a huge variation in language competences and language use in different countries due to such factors as cultural and social traditions, individual levels of education or the typological distance between languages. These factors have contributed to the emergence of other forms of multilingual communication, such as code switching or translation. Although the authors do not explicitly

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<sup>4</sup> It is important to note that the Council of Europe distinguishes between the social and individual levels of language use. *Multilingualism* refers to the presence of more than one variety of language in a geographical area, while *plurilingualism* involves individual language repertoires. In the EU usage, however, *multilingualism* is a general term encompassing both levels.

mention, local traditions and attitudes towards translation are strongly influenced by a country's translation policy (for example the tradition of dubbing or subtitling in the media). At the same time, a country's translation policy has a significant effect also on its citizens' average level of foreign language competence, as shown by the latest Eurobarometer survey conducted by the European Commission (2012).

In any case, the emergence of such concepts in contemporary multilingualism research as *super-diversity* (Vertovec 2006), *post-multiculturalism* (Vertovec 2010) or *transnationalism* (Pries 2008) point to the increasingly complex nature of societal and individual multilingualism, particularly among younger generations, as well as to the changing linguistic landscape in Europe even in areas that are culturally and linguistically more homogeneous. According to Apfelbaum and Meyer (2010), the traditional boundaries between such fundamental concepts as nation, state and language have become less clear-cut, and thus language use in multilingual societies is becoming more and more complex and difficult to regulate. The recent shift in research methods and approaches in multilingualism research seems to reflect an awareness of this issue. While in the past the focus was on the grammatical aspects of bi- and multilingualism (for example in code-switching), researchers today increasingly use ethnographic methods of inquiry when studying individuals' linguistic repertoires (for example by analysing authentic video or audio data qualitatively, complemented by participant observation, follow-up interviews or document analysis). They also emphasise that participants use these repertoires in a flexible way in many different situations for a variety of purposes. Focusing on workplace settings, Lüdi and Heininger (2007, as cited in Apfelbaum and Meyer 2010) argued that language ideologies, ethnic identity, individual preferences of language use and even linguistic competence often becomes secondary to the communicative situation itself. This idea is strongly related to the relevance theoretical approach to translation, and has particularly strong implications for research on non-professional translation (and the issue of quality). From a relevance theoretical perspective, quality is based on the success of communication, thus, any translation that achieves the right balance between the value of information and the processing effort that the reader needs to recover this information can be accepted as translation (Heltai 2009, 2014). However, this balance depends on a number of variables in the translation situation (e.g., available time, information, tools and resources), the translator's competence (e.g., language competence in the source and target language, qualification and/or experience, general knowledge, knowledge of the subject matter, personality traits) and the shortcomings (or errors) in the translation (Heltai 2014: 477).

Jørgensen, Rindler-Schjerve and Vetter (2012) have emphasised that in real-life language use, the linguistic restrictions on what can be said are not so strict, and thus speakers sometimes freely combine features that characterise different languages even if they do not speak that language very well. This often happens when non-native speakers use English in language mediation situations although the authors argue that in the case of public language use, social constraints and norms impose more restrictions on linguistic behaviour.

Similarly, House and Rehbein (2004) pointed out that multilingual communication brings into contact different languages embedded in a social context in specific communicative situations. Studying the concept of language constellations, they listed the following dimensions that should be considered in multilingual communication: the language(s) involved, the speech situation, the roles of the participants (including the presence or absence of translators or interpreters), the socio-political status and the typological distance of the languages involved, the skills of the participants, as well as the degree of language separation, language mixing or switching (code-switching) (House and Rehbein 2004: 3). Drawing on the concept of language constellations, Apfelbaum and Meyer (2010) identified five forms of multilingual communication (*Table 1*).

*Table 1. Forms of multilingual communication (based on Apfelbaum and Meyer 2010: 5)*

|                              | <b>Native-non-native</b> | <b>Non-native-non-native</b> | <b>Native-native</b> |
|------------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------|
| Use of majority language     | ✓                        | ✓                            | ✓                    |
| Lingua Franca                | ✓                        | ✓                            | ✓                    |
| Interpreting and Translation | ✓                        | ✓                            | ✗ does not apply     |
| Receptive Multilingualism    | ✓                        | ✓                            | ✗ does not apply     |
| Code-switching               | ✓                        | ✓                            | ✓                    |

This approach is very useful since it does not limit multilingual communication to interactions where participants have different native languages. Instead, it emphasises the importance of the actual setting and the specific communicative purpose(s) of the interaction, as well as the cognitive, social and historical aspects involved. Apfelbaum and Meyer (2010) also noted that in certain constellations, issues of power and status could influence language use (c.f. Phillipson 2008). For example, using a majority language or a lingua franca may influence communication depending on whether the participants are native or non-native speakers of that language. With regard to this, translation or interpretation seems to be the most balanced way of multilingual communication, where issues of power and status are the least apparent (although they are definitely present in a different way). This idea may partly explain the

growing importance of translation in the EU's intercultural communication at the institutional level (where the equality of languages and cultures is a fundamental issue) parallel with the widespread use of the English language.

Multilingualism is a fundamental theme in the European Union, where it is used as a political and ideological strategy. The complex nature of the EU itself has generated an intense discussion on such essential social and political issues as the EU's identity, legitimacy and accountability, which are closely related to the issue of multilingualism (e.g., Cerutti and Lucarelli 2008, Kelemen 2004, Lucarelli, Cerutti, and Schmidt 2010, Schütze 2012, Stadtmüller and Bachmann 2011). According to Jørgensen, Rindler-Schjerve and Vetter (2012), the EU's approach to multilingualism has three main problematic aspects. First, it focuses mainly on big, national languages to the detriment of regional, minority and immigrant languages. Secondly, it seems to be based on the traditional nation-state approach, which views languages as separate entities associated with homogeneous speech communities with their distinct identities and cultures without acknowledging that in contemporary Europe, the boundaries between these concepts tend to be very dynamic and fluid. Finally, the researchers argue that the EU's multilingualism strategy seems to serve two interests at the same time. It overtly strives to ensure the promotion of human rights and linguistic diversity, but it covertly promotes a transnational community and a common European identity via strategies that seem to focus only on a few languages – and increasingly only on English. Phillipson (2008), one of the most severe critics of the EU's language policy, has repeatedly pointed out that the emergence of European identity is increasingly associated with the dominant position of English. Since the EU's language policy has profound and far-reaching repercussions on the European language situation, it is important that European policymakers follow the ongoing academic discussion on language policy, and scholars in all relevant disciplines as well as national and institutional leaders and policymakers adopt a critical and analytical approach to sensitive, language-related issues, taking into account not only international trends but local needs and interests as well.

#### ***2.2.2.2 The status of English as a foreign language in Europe***

In the context of the EU, van Els (2006) distinguished between *institutional* and *non-institutional* language policy. Institutional language policy regulates language use within and between the EU institutions, the language(s) used in the official communication between the EU and the member states (and their citizens) and between the EU and international organisations. Non-institutional language policy covers issues related to language use outside

the EU institutions, primarily with and between the member states and their citizens. Besides topics related to regional, minority and immigrant languages, the non-institutional domain includes EU policies related to foreign language learning and teaching. One strategic tool used by the EU is multilingualism policy, which promotes foreign language learning as the most effective means of individual mobility and competitiveness, as well as the key to such European values as democracy and cultural diversity. For example, the Barcelona objectives, formulated in 2002, explicitly state that European citizens should speak at least two languages in addition to their mother tongue. However, the results of the latest European Commission survey (2012) indicate that English enjoys an unprecedented status, and is perceived as the most useful foreign language across Europe. Ahn (2007) has also pointed out that the EU's respect for linguistic diversity in its institutional language policy is a symbolic policy statement without carrying much weight. In reality, English is the dominant language in both the EU's institutional language policy and in European cross-cultural communication. Some researchers have expressed their worries about the impacts of this situation on the English language. For example, according to Phillipson (2003: 176), the widespread use of English in Europe might lead to a "simplified, pidginised but unstable 'Euro-English'", which restricts the creative expression of ideas and leads to imprecise language use that may cause frequent communication problems. On the other hand, scholars who are more used to different varieties of English (for example those who come from post-colonial environments) tend to be more open to this phenomenon. For instance, according to Canagarajah (2007), *Lingua Franca English* is constructed by individuals involved in specific interactions, who negotiate the language for their own purposes by activating a "mutually recognized set of attitudes, forms, and conventions" (2007: 925). The term *Lingua Franca English* also suggests that she views this language variety as separate from (but not inferior to) other varieties of English. The varieties of English referred to as *Euro-English* and *EU English* are particularly relevant for this dissertation, and will be discussed in more detail in Section 2.5.2.2.

A number of studies have investigated this delicate issue from various perspectives, coming to different conclusions. Some of them accept that the spread of English is a natural phenomenon, while others emphasise the responsibility of the EU (see Ahn 2007, Canagarajah 2007, Caviedes 2003, de Swaan 2004, Koskinen 2013, Truchot 1999, van Parijs 2004, Wise 2007). Since the EU only has supportive competence in language policy issues at the national level (due to the principle of subsidiarity), Phillipson (2006) suggested adopting a consistent and effective language policy at the supranational level instead of the current



*laissez-faire* attitude. He listed the following reasons behind the apparent fluidity of language policies in Europe (2006: 24):

- an unresolved tension between linguistic nationalism (monolingualism), EU institutional multilingualism, and English becoming dominant in the EU,
- competing agendas at the European, state (national), and sub-state levels,
- increasing grassroots and elite bi- and multilingualism, except in the UK and among the older generation in demographically large EU countries,
- a largely uncritical adoption of ‘englishisation’, the *lingua economica/americana*, and
- a rhetoric of language rights, some national and supranational implementation, and advocacy of linguistic diversity.

According to Phillipson (2008), the internationalization process in European higher education, evidenced by the increasing number of English-medium master’s programmes offered by European universities, is a clear sign of the dominance of English. Whether this is a natural consequence of globalization or the result of a normative project remains to be seen, along with its long-term effects on language use at various levels. However, Phillipson calls for further empirical research to clarify whether the current status of English poses serious threats to other languages or it is an effective tool for intercultural communication.

Nevertheless, parallel with the growing importance of English and the increasing number of English-medium master’s programs, the number of programmes and courses focusing on multi/translingualism, inter/transcultural communication as well as translation and language mediation is also on the rise. This tendency suggests that multilingualism, the advance of English and the diversified practice of translation cannot be treated and discussed as isolated phenomena.

### ***2.2.2.3 Translation as a form of intercultural communication***

The cultural and social aspects of communication have received more attention in recent decades in every field studying language and communication, including translation studies, sociolinguistics (especially contact linguistics), communication studies (intercultural communication) and foreign language learning and teaching. Research on bi- and multilingualism seems to offer particularly interesting insights into translation, which has

been pointed out recently by many studies (e.g., Chesterman 1998, House 2008, Lanstyák 2003, Lanstyák and Heltai 2012). Lanstyák and Heltai (2012) have recently emphasised that in spite of the differences in the purpose of communication – translational communication representing *interpretive* language use (in relevance theoretic terms), while ordinary bilingual communication is an example of *descriptive* language use –, they share some common features. In both cases, two languages interact and influence each other, and both are characterised by tighter constraints than in average communication, resulting in special contact language varieties. Earlier Lanstyák (2003) argued that from this perspective, translation studies could be viewed as a branch of contact linguistics, calling for more cooperation between these fields, particularly with regard to the theoretical frameworks they use. Taking this idea further, Lanstyák and Heltai (2012: 100) suggested that since bilingual communication and translation are examples of constrained communication, their common features can be described in a unified framework, which they referred to as *universals of constrained communication*.

As argued earlier, translation has a central role in contemporary cross-cultural communication. In this sense, translation can be considered more than just a linguistic activity: it is also an essential intercultural process. According to Phipps and Gonzalez (2004: 149), “The creative, human activity of translation is at the heart of languaging and being intercultural”. Over the past decades, researchers have emphasised that translators have a fundamental role as cultural mediators, and that translation is at the core of contemporary life and society (e.g., Bassnet and Lefevere 1998, Gentzler 2001, 2008, Simon 2006, 2011, Tymoczko 2007). Seeing translation as a cultural activity can help to shed light on the growing practice of non-professional translation, and has important pedagogical implications for educational contexts outside professional translator training.

One of the earliest frameworks representing this approach was Holz-Mänttari’s (1984) Translational Action theory, which recognised that translators were experts in intercultural communication. According to this theory, the focus in translation is not on comparing the source and the target text, neither on linguistics, but on cross-cultural cooperation, part of which is producing a text that can function appropriately in the target culture in a specific situation. The term *translational action* suggests a broader conceptualisation of translation, including various oral and written translational situations, which is close to the notion of *mediation* as used later by Lörscher (1992). Holz-Mänttari’s idea of text function appeared later in the Skopos Theory (Reiss and Vermeer 1984) and functionalist approaches to translation (see 2.5.1).

Katan (2004) has also emphasised that translators are inevitably cultural mediators, who facilitate intercultural communication, understanding and action. In this role, cultural mediators are expected not only to translate what is directly expressed in communication, but also to understand and transfer intentions, perceptions and expectations, which often remain unexpressed. This idea implies that translation is more than simply using two languages or replacing the source language words with target language words. As Bührig, House and ten Thije (2009) pointed out, intercultural understanding can be viewed as the prerequisite for functional equivalence. According to them, “intercultural misunderstanding can be regarded as simply a failure to realize functional equivalence” (2009: 1).

The so-called *cultural turn* in translation studies (Bassnet and Lefevere 1990) was followed by a similar shift of emphasis in cultural studies. In line with Bhabha’s (1994) concept of *translational culture*, Simon (2006) recently suggested an expanded definition of translation, seeing it as “writing that is inspired by the encounter with other tongues, including the effects of creative interference” (2006: 17). This idea implies that in multilingual contexts, translation is not merely a process between texts, but is present or inherent in the text itself. Thus, it can happen that there is no original source text (because the writer produces the text in the target language), but the text can still be considered translation.

Later Simon (2011) took this idea further, claiming that translation provides the foundation for (i.e. it is the central principle of) all cultural constructions, including art, architecture and even religion. A similar argument was put forward earlier by Brodzki (2007), who claimed that “Translation is no longer seen to involve only narrowly circumscribed technical procedures of specialised or local interest, but rather to underwrite all cultural transactions” (Brodzki 2007: 2). In short, translation today can be considered a new speaking position, an in-between (or transnational) space where culture is produced, and where tensions arising from the contemporary hybridity of communities are negotiated (c.f. Bhabha 1994).

This post-structural perspective also underlines recent approaches to foreign language learning and teaching. Kramersch (2006a: 103) suggested that the notion of advanced language competence should refer to “the ability to translate, transpose and critically reflect on social, cultural and historical meanings conveyed by the grammar and lexicon”. Today, it is not enough if learners can communicate meanings, they have to understand and be aware of the meaning-making process itself (Kramersch 2006b: 251). Drawing on Byram’s (2000: 10) notion of intercultural competence, which is defined as “the ability to critically or analytically understand that one’s own and other culture’s perspective is culturally determined rather than natural”, Kramersch (2011) has argued that the concept of foreign language competence needs

to be reinterpreted. Instead of referring to the ability to communicate across cultures, it should rather mean “a symbolic mentality that grants as much importance to subjectivity and the historicity of experience as to the social conventions and the cultural expectations of any one stable community of speakers” (Kramersch 2011: 365). Thus, language learners need to acquire a *symbolic competence* (Kramersch 2006b), which helps them reflect on what discourse reveals about other people’s mind (discourse as *symbolic representation*), about human intentions (discourse as *symbolic action*) as well as about social identities, individual and collective memories, emotions and aspirations (discourse as *symbolic power*) (Kramersch 2011: 357).

Kramersch (2011) also underlined that culture itself should not be seen as a fixed entity but rather as “an individual’s subject position that changes according to the situation and to *the way he/she chooses* [emphasis in the original] to belong rather than to the place she belongs” (2011: 245). This idea is related to the concept of *third culture* (Kramersch 1993, 2009), which refers to an intercultural perspective from which language learners can understand their own and other cultures and languages, but it also involves the symbolic process of meaning-making (Kramersch 2011).

However, in a post-structuralist sense, this subject position can refer to multiple positions, which are fluid and temporary, and there can even be tension or conflicts between them, arising from the position of being ‘in between’ (at least) two cultures. One of the most prominent European intercultural communication researchers, Byram (2009: 210–211) seems to share this view, emphasising that the goal of foreign language learning is no longer to achieve near-native proficiency, but to “occupy the ‘space between’ cultures” and develop ‘critical cultural awareness’.

The idea of thirdness also appears in important policy documents in the American and European higher educational context. In the United States, a recent report of the Modern Language Association of America (MLA) Ad Hoc Committee on Foreign Languages (2007) – of which Kramersch is a member – explicitly states that the goal of foreign language education at the tertiary level should be the acquisition of ‘translingual and transcultural competence’, which refers to the ability to ‘operate between languages’:

Students are educated to function as informed and capable interlocutors with educated native speakers in the target language. They are also trained to reflect on the world and themselves through the lens of another language and culture. They learn to comprehend speakers of the target language as members of foreign societies and to grasp themselves as Americans--that is, as members of a society that is foreign to

others. They also learn to relate to fellow members of their own society who speak languages other than English. (2007: 237–238)

Along the same line, Pennycook (2008: 33) pointed out that today's world is characterised by "a traffic in meaning, a passing to and fro of ideas, concepts, symbols, discourses", which also implies that translation is inherent in the world around us (c.f. Simon 2006). Thus, English cannot be viewed in isolation, but needs to be seen in the context of other languages, it is 'a language always in translation' (Pennycook 2008). Following from this, language teaching is inevitably tied to translation, which is the manifestation of the complexity and diversity of meanings. This idea explicitly appears in the MLA (2007) report, which lists future priorities for language departments and programmes, and advocates the development of translation and interpretation programmes: "There is a great unmet demand for educated translators and interpreters, and translation is an ideal context for developing translingual and transcultural abilities as an organizing principle of the language curriculum" (2007: 243).

In the context of European higher education, the MAGICC (2013) (Modularising Multilingual and Multicultural Academic Communication Competence for BA and MA level) project of the EU's Lifelong Learning Programme (2011–2014), coordinated by the University of Lausanne, aims at developing a detailed conceptual framework for multilingual and multicultural academic communication competences (including the dimension of intercultural and lifelong learning skills and competences). It also describes detailed learning outcomes of these competences and provides tools for their assessment. On closer examination of the definitions of competences, it seems that the project developers find cultural awareness and individuals' (linguistic/cultural/other) identities important also in the academic and workplace context (MAGICC 2013). Although in the learning outcomes translation does not appear as a separate communication skill or competence (the document uses the categories of reading, listening, spoken interaction, spoken production and writing skills related to both the academic and professional context), directly or indirectly it appears in the learning outcomes of several communication skills (or sub-skills) and learning strategies. This implies that various types of translation activities seem to be useful tools to develop multicultural and multilingual academic communication competences.

Hopefully, in the future, translation will also be recognised as a useful competence in its own right in foreign language learning and teaching, and language teachers will start to exploit its true potentials. To achieve this, however, stronger and more effective collaboration

is needed between language teachers and translator/interpreter trainers, as well as between the disciplines of translation studies and foreign language learning and teaching.

#### ***2.2.2.4 The growing practice of non-professional translation***

The growing importance of non-professional translation parallel to the global spread of English can be better understood in the framework of glocalisation, which is an increasingly popular perspective in intercultural communication. Sociologist Robertson (1995) suggested that the term globalisation should be replaced by the term *glocalisation*, which refers to the co-existence and interdependence of global and local dynamics. He argued that even though universalizing and particularizing tendencies seem to indicate opposing forces – the former striving for homogeneity and the latter for heterogeneity –, in reality, these trends are complementary and interdependent although in certain situations they can indeed collide. In other words, global influences are thought to be processed by the local culture, which has its own conventions, structures and specific needs. This perspective can help to explain the phenomenon that Pym (2008) refers to as the *diversity paradox*. By this he means the harmonious co-existence of two seemingly contradictory trends: the global spread of English, driven by a homogenizing tendency, and the growing importance of local languages and translation (including non-professional translation), which enhances equality as well as cultural and linguistic diversity.

In translation studies, research on translation as an activity has primarily focused on formal and professional translation and interpretation even though non-professional translation (including informal, non-profit, occasional and ad-hoc translation) is becoming increasingly important and common in cross-cultural communication. The emergence and rapid expansion of non-professional translation has diversified the translation market, challenging researchers and educators, particularly on the issue of professionalism and expertise (Jääskeläinen, Kujamäki and Mäkisalo 2011). Some researchers have pointed out that there are several indicators of a current disorder in the translation market in Europe, which can result in a lower status of professional translators and interpreters along with a decline in standards and quality (Katan 2009, Pym et al. 2012). According to Katan (2009), the European translation market is almost completely unregulated: there is no standard professional code of conduct, quality control or an influential European association (which typically distinguish professions from occupations). Katan's observations are similar to Pym et al's (2012) conclusion that "the generic activity of translators appears not to qualify as a 'regulated profession' in terms of Professional Qualifications Directive (2005/36/EC): no one

can stop an unqualified person from working as translator” (Pym et al. 2012: 3). Since non-professional translation affects the whole translation market, interdisciplinary research into these issues – including pedagogical aspects –, have important theoretical and practical implications for the discipline of translation studies.

#### **2.2.2.5 Conceptualisations of translation and language mediation**

Translation studies has started to devote more research attention to non-professional translation in recent decades. However, still very little attention is directed towards translation teaching outside the professional training context. At the same time, translation is still a marginal topic also in foreign language learning and teaching research. In general, translation is still largely seen as a means to test (more recently also to develop) foreign language competence and not as a pedagogical tool to develop other competences or as a valuable skill in its own right. When trying to uncover the reasons behind this phenomenon, it seems that the problem is (partly) related to differing conceptualizations of translation in various academic disciplines well as in certain European policy documents.

In translation studies, the word ‘translation’ is used in three different senses. It can refer to the phenomenon of translation and the discipline that investigates it, to the translated texts themselves or to the process of translation. Jakobson (1959/2004) used the word in a broad sense, arguing that translation is necessary to interpret the meaning of any linguistic sign. Thus, he distinguished between *intralingual* translation (rewording in the same language), *interlingual* translation (translation proper) and *intersemiotic* translation (between different sign systems). The traditional focus of translation studies has been *interlingual* translation although its definition has undergone major changes as a result of paradigm shifts within the discipline, particularly with regard to the emphasis placed on source text fidelity and the socio-cultural context surrounding the source and the target text. The complexity of the concept of translation contributes makes it difficult to draw precise boundaries between different types of translation. Halverson (2000) suggested using the notion of *prototype translation* to describe various forms of translation that share basic features. Similarly, Tymoczko (2007) has argued that an open definition of translation (translation as a *cluster concept*) allows adapting it to globalization and technological development and including new forms. Even though professional translation is typically associated with activities that are “done on request and for a financial reward” (Gile 1995: 22), the ambiguity of the term *professional* (in terms of formal qualification and/or experience) further complicates the situation.

The conceptualisation of translation also seems to be greatly influenced by the role attributed to norms. In his influential paper, Chesterman (1993) argued that translation theory must include both a descriptive and an evaluative element. According to him, the aim of descriptive translation studies is to empirically examine translators' behaviour and establish 'observable regularities' (i.e., general descriptive laws) in their behaviour irrespective of their competence as well as of the quality and type of translation. Thus, the descriptive approach includes any kind of translation (including non-professional practices) as long as it is accepted as translation. However, Chesterman (1993) – recognizing the importance of quality – pointed out that a purely descriptive approach cannot explain the differences between good and bad translation, which, according to him, is one of the main driving forces in studying translation behaviour. As he put it, "What we need to know, not instead of but in addition to these general descriptive laws, is what makes a *good* [emphasis in the original] translation" (Chesterman 1993: 4). Norms describe the regular and accepted behaviour of the community of competent professional translators and the texts that they produce, thus they are "models or standards of desired behaviour". Chesterman's (1993) focus on the behaviour of professional translators and the texts they produce in establishing norms have affected the acknowledgement of other types of translation in mainstream translation studies. Although Chesterman's argument for an evaluative aspect is well-justified, originally he suggested that the evaluative aspect should not replace but complement a general description of translation behaviour, which should include all types of translation ("not instead of but *in addition to* [italics added] these general descriptive laws"). Nevertheless, as pointed out earlier, in translation studies, translation typically refers to professional practices.

Another important influence on the conceptualization of translation was the advance of a process-oriented approach (Gile 1994, Lörcher 1992, 2005, Tirkkonen-Condit 2005). Translation theory was traditionally concerned with the product (i.e. texts), particularly focusing on equivalence and the competence of professional translators, while the process-oriented approach directed the main attention towards cognitive aspects of the translation process. This approach represents the middle ground in the debate on the innateness of translation ability. Some researchers maintain that bilinguals can do natural translation in everyday circumstances without special training, and this innate ability increases automatically as language competence develops (Harris 1977, 1978, Harris and Sherwood 1978). In contrast, others argue that natural translation ability does not develop with language competence, thus transfer competence should be explicitly taught (Toury 1986, 2012). Lörcher (1992) defined this higher (or deeper) level of translation competence as the



“individual’s ability to transfer texts equivalently on various levels according to a given purpose/aim and with regard to sense, communicative function(s), style, text type, and/or other factors, or to deliberately violate postulates of equivalence for a certain purpose” (Lörscher 1992: 148). Even though some forms of translation (particularly natural translation done by children and ad-hoc translation or mediation done by native speakers who do not have any formal translation qualification and/or experience) are more difficult to be regarded as translation since they are the result of unconscious (or less conscious) activities, according to Lörscher (1992), even these activities should be classified as translations if they convey the main message. He also emphasised that studying these unconscious translation processes (and the products of these processes) could help researchers in better understanding the concept and development of translation competence (1992: 152). In Lörscher’s view (19992) foreign language learners and novice translators typically have a *sign-oriented* approach to translation, which is an automatic association process typically ignoring the pragmatic or cultural context. With the help of targeted training, this rudimentary approach can develop into a *sense-oriented* approach, in which translation decisions are based on the interpretation of the pragmatic and cultural context. According to Lörscher (1992: 149), mediating sense based on contextual information is also the essence of real-life situations in which communication is made possible via a mediator (*real mediating situations*).

A similar conceptualisation underpins the notion of mediation from a language learning perspective. Dévény (2013) defined mediation as follows:

Mediation is a skill which facilitates mediation activity in the course of which the information in SL (source language) text is successfully processed while using the appropriate mediation strategies, summarizing, paraphrasing, rewording etc. and this way the essential information content of the SL text is successfully switched into the target language (TL). Transfer is successful if it is accomplished with appropriate linguistic, lexical and stylistic tools without causing essential distortion to information content. The aim of foreign language mediation is not the translation of the SL text word for word but reflecting the intention, the message of the original text. Therefore a successful mediation strives to make sure that message remains clear in the target text. (Dévény 2013: 307)

This definition is close to Lörscher’s (1992) idea of sense-oriented translation, and is also strongly connected to the relevance theoretical approach to translation (Gutt 1991). A broad

conceptualisation of translation that includes mediation can not only help non-professional translation to occupy a more prominent place in translation studies but they also seem to be useful approach to adopt when teaching translation within foreign language programmes in higher education.

The terms translation and mediation also appear in European (language) policy documents, but they are used in a different sense. One example is the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), which was originally adopted by the Council of Europe (2001) and is widely used across Europe today. In 2001, an EU Council resolution recommended it as the basis for harmonizing national curriculum guidelines and foreign language syllabuses as well as designing teaching and learning materials and assessing foreign language proficiency. The document includes a definition of general and communicative language competences as well as language activities. Language activities refer to the actual language performance during which communicative language competences are activated. The document also uses the term mediation, which is seen as a type of oral or written language activity. On the one hand, this implies a modern view of language, capturing the wide variety of translation activities that individuals engage in today. On the other hand, the document lists the following examples of language mediation activities: simultaneous and consecutive interpretation, informal interpretation and oral translation in various social situations, formal written technical and literary translations, summarizing the gist of a text in the foreign language or between the foreign and native language, or paraphrasing texts. Apparently, there is no distinction made between professional and non-professional translation even though they are different activities at least in terms of the required competences and/or experience. Simultaneous and consecutive interpretation or technical and literary translation, for example, require specialised competences and years of experience, and/or typically also professional, formal training and qualifications. Thus, the conceptualization of language mediation in this document indicates the ambiguity surrounding the notions of translation and mediation, particularly when used in different fields and by different researchers.

## 2.3 Views on translation teaching in translation studies and foreign language learning and teaching

As Colina (2002) pointed out, despite their common interests, the apparent lack of cooperation between translation studies and the foreign language learning and teaching is partly rooted in deeply ingrained notions and research paradigms in these two fields of inquiry. With the aim of gaining a clearer and more critical understanding of the place of translation teaching in translation studies and foreign language learning and teaching, this section first discusses how translation teaching is viewed within translation studies, including recent criticisms expressed by translation studies scholars. This is followed by an analysis of the attitudes towards translation in foreign language learning and teaching, and finally, the last section examines various levels and settings of translation teaching, based on their main aims.

### 2.3.1 The place of translation teaching in translation studies

Holmes' seminal paper originally presented in 1972, in which he defined the name, the scope, the main objectives and the structure of Translation Studies (TS), is regarded by many as a major stimulus for an emerging field (Holmes 1972/1988). He divided Translation Studies into two main branches, the *pure* (further separated into *descriptive* and *theoretical*) and the *applied* branches, and emphasised that they complement each other. In Holmes' model, Applied Translation Studies refers to direct and practical applications of the results of the two other branches, and it covers translation teaching, translation aids, translation policy and translation criticism. Holmes distinguished between two types of translation teaching: (1) translation used as a 'technique' in foreign language teaching and as a tool to test foreign language competence and (2) translation training in professional settings. Even though Holmes did not mention what exactly he meant by the word 'technique', he might have had traditional (out-of-context) translation tasks in mind, which were typical in the 1970s (i.e., pedagogical/school translation). This may also explain his remark about the possible 'dysfunctionality' of using translation in foreign language learning and teaching in certain situations. It is noteworthy that according to Holmes, determining the role of translation in foreign language learning and teaching falls within the scope of translation policy. Concerning the relationship of policy and research, Holmes argued that in order to avoid using translation in an ineffective way, "extensive and rigorous" research is essential to

objectively evaluate the efficiency of using translation in foreign language learning and teaching. Elaborating on what kind of research he was referring to, he emphasised that translation policy research should precede educational research ('program research'). This idea implies that Holmes believed that translation policy and concrete translation policy measures strongly influence the practice of foreign language teaching. However, it seems to be even more important for translation policy research to uncover hidden ideological and political agendas. For example, the dubbing/subtitling policy of a country – which is directly related to foreign language learning – seems to be particularly prone to such influences.

Some researchers (e.g., Toury 2012) have emphasised that Holmes' framework is extremely useful since it makes a clear distinction between the main scopes of the different branches, and is flexible enough to be expanded based on the advances in the field. However, the model has also received some criticism. For example, according to Munday (2012), the applied branch of the model seems to be less developed compared to the other two branches although he added that it could easily be extended to include areas that are more specific. He also argued that Holmes' emphasis on the pure branch probably indicates his main interests and does not necessarily mean that the applied side was not as important in those days. Munday has also pointed out that contemporary translation policy seems to be more linked with ideological issues than in the 1970s, particularly due to the changing role and status of the English language and the process of European integration. Interestingly, however, Munday's (2012) map includes professional translator training as the only educational setting without reference to translation teaching within foreign language learning and teaching.

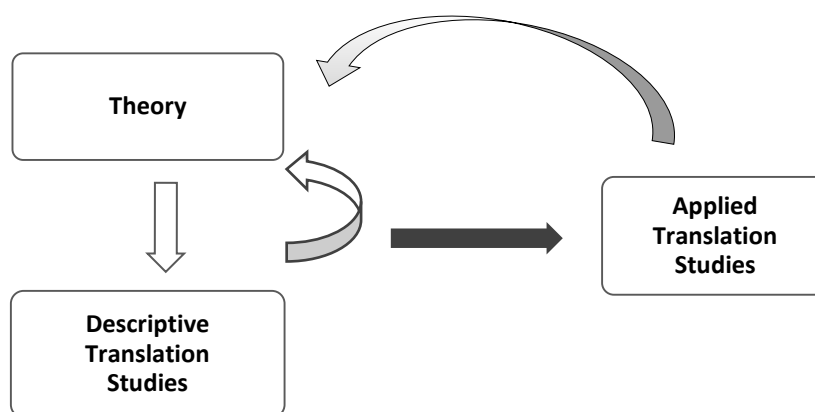
Throughout the years, the branches in Holmes' map gained different degrees of attention according to the dominant paradigm. Incorporating the most recent changes in the field, van Doorslaer (2007) has recently outlined a new conceptual map, which distinguishes between translation and Translation Studies. Translation refers to the act of translating, and is divided into four main types on the basis of the following: lingual mode (e.g., interlingual or intralingual translation), the media (e.g., printed, audio-visual, electronic translation), the mode (covert/overt, direct/indirect, mother tongue/other tongue, pseudo-translation, retranslation, self-translation, sight translation) and the field (political, journalistic, technical, literary, religious, scientific, commercial translation) (van Doorslaer, 2007: 223). However, no distinction is made between professional and non-professional translation (depending on the translator's qualification and/or experience), or formal and informal translation situations. In the model, Translation Studies as a discipline is divided into four main subcategories: approaches (e.g., cultural or linguistic), theories (e.g., general translation theory, polysystem

theory), research methods (e.g., descriptive, empirical) and applied areas (e.g., translation criticism, translation pedagogy) (van Doorslaer, 2007: 228-231), but the model does not specify various levels and educational settings related to translation pedagogy.

The descriptive approach has played a significant role in making translation studies an independent discipline, and has been the dominant paradigm since the 1980s (Scarpa et al. 2009). However, several authors have pointed out that the applied branch has been given relatively less attention, and it seems to have a lower status compared to the pure branches (e.g., Rabadán 2008, Scarpa et al. 2009, Ulrych 1999). In fact, the applied branch is often seen only as an extension of the pure branches, which, according to Toury (2012), constitute translation studies *proper*. Toury (2012) also pointed out that the applied branch often applies theoretical principles (established by descriptive research) as prescriptive rules to regulate translation behaviour. Thus, while the descriptive and the theoretical branches seem to have a bidirectional relationship (being depending on and influencing each other), the applied branch seems to be linked to them only unidirectionally (Scarpa et al. 2009). In other words, theory seems to feed into practice but not the other way round, which seems to be particularly true in the case of translation teaching outside the professional context.

Following from this, Scarpa et al. (2009) have argued that the applied branch should become more integrated into the disciplinary core of translation studies since it can provide grounds not only for testing and explaining theories but also for identifying problems with the help of descriptive methodologies. According to them, the applied branch can aim to describe empirical data based on theories, as well as to explain or predict various phenomena related to translation. In fact, as noted by Laviosa (2008), there is a growing trend among translation teachers to use corpus-based methods to describe certain phenomena with the long-term aim of formulating theoretical rules. Earlier, Hatim (2001) suggested that practitioner research, conducted by translators and instructors themselves, could help to restore the balance between theory and practice in translation studies. He views this kind of research as “not only something done *to* or *on* practitioners, but (...) *by* [emphasis in the original] practitioners (Hatim 2001: 7). Drawing on Vandepitte’s (2008) ideas, Scarpa et al. (2009) have emphasised that the pure branches (theoretical and descriptive) have traditionally been viewed as aiming to describe and know what translation is, whereas the applied branch was thought to strive for practical changes. In their model (*Figure 2*), however, Applied Translation Studies (ATS) is believed to be able to inform, influence or even modify existing theories, while Descriptive Translation Studies (DTS) is regarded as a common methodological framework for both theory and application.

Figure 2. Relationship between the branches of Translation Studies (Scarpa et al. 2009: 37)



This approach appears to be particularly useful when investigating translation teaching outside the professional training context. Localised, empirical research in this setting is much needed in order to explain and justify educational policy decisions and describe already existing practices. Furthermore, research into using translation in a communicative and functional way within foreign language education can provide useful data for the descriptive branches of translation studies. It can enrich the theoretical knowledge of the discipline and can help to develop ties with other related disciplines.

Recently, several researchers have begun to emphasise the inter- and multidisciplinary nature of translation studies. Comparing interdisciplines to ‘Phoenician traders among the settled nations’, Munday (2012) pointed out that an interdiscipline has the potential to challenge traditional ways of thinking “by promoting and responding to new links between different types of knowledge and technologies” (2012: 24). He also claimed that the main paradigm shifts in translation studies have always reflected the relationship between translation studies and other disciplines. For example, in the 1960s, contrastive linguistics had a profound influence on translation research, while today there is a strong link with cultural studies as well as with information technology and media/communication studies. According to Munday (2012), interdisciplinary relationships are also important in those subfields of translation studies – for example in translation teaching –, where educational theory is involved.

On the other hand, some other researchers, most notably Gile (2004a), have expressed concerns regarding the growing trend of interdisciplinarity in translation studies. According to him, if disciplines work together, the result is often an unbalanced situation, where the partner discipline enjoys a higher status along with more power and financial support. Furthermore, he emphasised that interdisciplinarity can easily lead to new paradigms, which may have a

negative impact on the status of translation studies as an autonomous discipline (Gile 2004a: 29). This fear is partly valid as it indeed took a long time for translation studies to become acknowledged as an individual academic discipline, and for professional translator training programmes to become independent from language departments. The struggle for independence has not yet been completely successful everywhere, and in some countries translation programmes or courses are still offered as part of language studies within foreign language or applied linguistics departments, often with a research focus on literary translation or translation as a tool to test language competence. This situation is certainly not advantageous for the advance of research in translation studies. On the other hand, research on translation can definitely benefit from using the theoretical and methodological knowledge available in partner disciplines. The perceived negative role and status of translation in foreign language teaching and learning, for example, is slowly undergoing a change as research increasingly draws on the knowledge acquired in translation studies. However, in order to fully exploit translation in language learning and teaching, translation studies and language pedagogy should work together in a more systematic way both in theory and in practice. The result of a stronger collaboration can lead to translation acknowledged not only as a useful tool to develop language and other general competences but also as a valuable skill in itself.

### **2.3.2 Using translation in foreign language learning and teaching**

After being relegated to the periphery for long centuries, translation is gradually being rediscovered in foreign language learning and teaching (e.g., Bührig, House, and Thije 2009, Cook 2010, 2012, Druce 2012, House 2009a, 2009b, Kemp 2012, Leonardi 2010, Malmkjær 1998, 2004, Naimushin 2002, Nation 2003, Widdowson 1978, 2003, Witte 2009). Joseph and Ramani (1998) pointed out that teachers of English to speakers of other languages need to redefine their role in education and switch from an essentially monolingual to a bi- and multilingual pedagogy. Expanding this argument, Widdowson (2003: 162) underlined that this new pedagogical approach should mean that “other languages are no longer suppressed, or at best reluctantly tolerated, but overtly recognised and made prominent as necessarily part of what second language learning is all about”. Luckily, in recent decades, there has been a growing interest in bringing translation back into language teaching although it has never totally disappeared from the actual practice, particularly in non-native contexts. According to Widdowson (2003), translation could be recognised as a useful resource in language learning

the same way as grammar has gradually become a more communicative concept (conveying pragmatic meaning). In his proposed bi- and multilingual pedagogy, the target language is taught not separately but parallel with other languages, and translation activities are used to “engage the learners in the exploration of the relationship between the two languages as alternative encodings of meaning” (Widdowson 2003: 160). As argued earlier in this dissertation, Kramersch (2006b) pointed out that providing students with a ‘tourist-like competence’ to communicate with native speakers of a given language (representing a national culture with clear boundaries) is no longer a valid goal of foreign language learning and teaching. Kramersch emphasised that individuals have their own ways of thinking and feeling as well as their unique style and identity, which are always expressed in communication not only through non-verbal signals but through the symbolic power of language – with the help of vocabulary, communication strategies and various discourse features. Thus, language learners need a much more sophisticated competence, called *symbolic competence*. Symbolic competence can help language learners (and users) interpret complex meanings expressed in various discourse (including spoken, written, visual and electronic modalities), which reflect the mind of individuals, groups or communities. Since languages are embedded in cultures, translation seems to be an excellent task to develop this competence in a contrastive way, connecting two languages/cultures. Although there are some positive signs of change in the educational practice around the world – also revealed by the findings of research conducted by the European Commission’s Directorate-General for Translation (2013) –, the dominant methodologies (typically relying on the principles of communicative language teaching), are still largely based on monolingual principles. The following sections attempt to explore the reasons behind this phenomenon.

The general negative attitude towards translation in foreign language learning and teaching is partly related to the fact that translation has been associated with principles originating in the Grammar-Translation Method. In this method, translation typically referred to the mechanical translation of isolated sentences mainly from the native into the foreign language (i.e., *school translation*, see Section 2.3.3 for more detail) instead of authentic texts in real communicative situations (i.e. *real translation*). In contrast, modern translation theories emphasise functionality and interaction, and translation activities are always based on authentic texts (or realistic oral situations). These activities always have a clear pragmatic context, and the instructions specify the target situation.

According to Hall and Cook (2012), another reason for the dismissal of translation from the general practice of foreign language teaching is the spread of the Berlitz Method.



The method was based solely on monolingual principles, aiming to immerse students in the target language and imitate native speaker language use. As a result, the global industry of ELT (English Language Teaching) employed mainly native speakers, who typically did not speak the language of the locals. This inevitably led to monolingual practices and the promotion of teaching materials that could be marketed without adapting them to different cultures. This is interesting in light of contemporary research results, which have revealed that it is impossible to prevent learners from relating the new language to their mother tongue (Cook 2010, Widdowson 2003). The phenomenon also illustrates the influence of underlying financial and ideological interests in education.

Focusing on broader educational benefits, Cook (2010: 105–123) has pointed out that using translation in language learning and teaching seems to embrace the main educational philosophies that underpin the curriculum. It is important to note that Cook's ideas are relevant mainly for advanced language learning settings, particularly for higher education. Firstly, education has a *technological* goal in the sense that it aims to provide individuals with practical general and specialised skills that are needed in real life. This is similar to Widdowson (2003: 160) idea of a prospective, forward-looking orientation of education, which caters for future social needs. Cook (2010) argued that using translation in language teaching undoubtedly has this function since most language graduates use English (as a *lingua franca*) in multilingual and multicultural settings, and often engage in various forms of translation.

Secondly, from a *social reformist* perspective, the goal of education is to promote certain (liberal, humanist and democratic) values that can solve conflicts and bring about positive social change (Cook 2010). This idea seems to be partly related to Widdowson's (2003: 160) retrospective perspective, from which one goal of education is to preserve existing values. Translation viewed as cultural interaction (or even as a metaphor of a symbolic subject position in a post-structuralist sense) can definitely result in local, regional or even global changes, or at least it can provide support for such changes. Cook also pointed out that in translation "languages meet as equals, however different their status and power" (Cook 2010: 118). Approached this way, translation can help overcome conflicts arising from power and inequality (c.f. Apfelbaum and Meyer 2010).

Thirdly, from a *humanistic* perspective, the goal of education is to help individuals gain intellectual and personal fulfilment. This dimension is closely related to intrinsic motivation, and Cook argues that – even though it is not scientifically proven – translation seems to provide a challenging and satisfying experience for most students. This might

explain the extreme popularity of translation classes reported by recent studies (e.g. Druce 2012, Kemp 2012, Sewell 2004). The motivation can also stem from the fact that translation provides a link between the foreign language and students' own culture and identity, not to mention that for students majoring in a foreign language, the translation class (particularly when they translate into their mother tongue) might be the only formal opportunity to develop their native language skills. One interesting study attempted to relate translation to the *flow* experience (see Csikszentmihalyi 1975), and concluded that if the texts are carefully chosen (the topic is interesting and there is a right balance between the students' skills and the difficulty of the text), students are likely to enjoy the translation process and experience flow (Mirlohi, Egbert, and Ghonosooly 2011). Similarly, Phipps and Gonzalez (2004: 151) pointed out that through communicative and realistic (or even real-life) activities, language learners can experience the true meaning of language mediation, the feeling of enabling communication and connecting people.

Finally, from an *academic* perspective, education is supposed to preserve, expand and advance knowledge in general or in a particular academic discipline. From an academic perspective, since students need a solid knowledge base (linguistics, translation theory as well as general and field-specific background knowledge) in order to translate accurately and appropriately, translation can contribute to the expansion of knowledge. On the other hand, translation clearly serves all these purposes also on a cross-cultural level (translated scientific books and articles). Furthermore, translation programmes and courses could counterbalance the so-called internationalisation process in higher education, which is evidenced by the mushrooming of English-medium master's programmes in European universities, and can contribute to the preservation and expansion of academic knowledge in less widespread languages (which might be the native language of the student enrolled in the English-medium master's programme). Cook (2010: 123) points out that "The best educational rationales are always those which acknowledge and respect the multiple motives and effects of educational programming, and which take into account the variety of interested parties". Thus, even though the four educational philosophies outlined above are typically given different (and often competing) emphasis in a specific curriculum – depending on several factors –, translation in advanced levels of foreign language learning and teaching has the potential to pursue (and integrate) all four educational goals.

Cook's (2010) technological perspective is related also to Calvo's (2011) argument about the contextualisation of the curriculum. According to her, a process-oriented, contextualised and practice-based curriculum is more flexible, self-corrective and forward-

looking than a theory-based curriculum, which is more prescriptive and resistant to change. Thus, the practice-based curriculum seems to be better suited for today's higher educational context. It is also more learner-centred and focuses more on the acquisition of competences which represent transferable knowledge and which require reflexive-critical learning (Calvo 2011: 11).

A globalisation perspective (see 2.2.2.4) seems to be also useful when discussing educational issues related to translation in foreign language education. According to Marx (2006), a crucial aspect of any organizational reform is to understand the dominant trends in the global and local context surrounding the institution. This is important for achieving legitimacy – a key concepts in educational policy –, which means providing meaningful and practical education so that students can effectively function in their career and personal life. Thus, when designing or modernising educational programmes, in particular when specifying aims and learning outcomes, it is important to consider the local context with all the relevant stakeholders as well as global tendencies and influences. As Brooks and Normore (2010: 54) put it, “a myopic education focused on geographically local perspectives will not serve students well as they enter into a shrinking world where they will compete for and partner with people, institutions, and economies on an international scale”. Today, there are obvious benefits of acquiring proficiency in English as it increases educational and career opportunities both nationally and internationally. However, English language competence seems to be insufficient these days, when a high level of native language and intercultural competence is required in multicultural and multilingual environments. Hence, translation appears to have a central role in the modern foreign language degree, which is linked to both global and local interests.

Besides broad educational benefits, several studies have emphasised that properly designed communicative translation activities contribute to the development of communicative competence (both in the foreign and native language) and intercultural competence. Duff (1989: 7) argued that translation was a combination of freedom and constraints, which “trains the learner to search (flexibility) for the most appropriate words (accuracy) to convey what is meant (clarity)”. Cook's (1998) argument echoes this idea, stating that one advantage of translation is that “the learner, being constrained by the original text, is denied resort to avoidance strategies and obliged to confront areas of the L2 system which s/he may find difficult” (Cook 1998: 277). Another benefit that Cook mentions is that learners can concentrate on subtle differences between languages, which can help them understand that exact equivalents do not always exist.

In her functionalist textual approach, Nord (2005) also emphasises that a contrastive analysis of the source and target text develops metalinguistic awareness of the structural similarities and differences between two languages, and makes students more aware of the norms and conventions of communication in both cultures. According to Nord (2005), authentic translation activities develop not only cultural competence and subject knowledge (even in highly specialised fields) but also technical competence for documentation and research (Nord 2005: 161). The benefits of using translation have been summarised by Schäffner (1998), who believes that translation expands students' vocabulary in the target language, develops their style and verbal agility, improves their understanding of how language works, consolidates target language structures for active use, and improves comprehension in the target language (1998: 125).

Apart from benefits related to the foreign language, translation is thought to develop students' native language competence as well, particularly if the students translate into their mother tongue. Bergen (2009), for example, emphasised that translation activities can raise students' awareness of their own language and culture. Similarly, Klaudy (2004a) has pointed out that since students have to use their mother tongue consciously during authentic translation activities, they can become more confident, conscious and reflective language users. According to Vermes (2003: 59), translation also develops students' writing skills in their mother tongue if they translate from L2 to L1. Reading parallel texts is a useful activity that can help students produce appropriate translations, conforming to the norms and conventions in their native language. Since previous research suggests that the development of reading and writing skills is closely related, translation can improve writing skills through reading.

### 2.3.3 Levels and settings of translation teaching

In translation studies, an important distinction is made between *school translation* and *professional translation* (Gile 1995: 22). In school translation, translation is used as a tool to consolidate grammatical structures or vocabulary and/or test students' language competence (most typically their foreign language competence)<sup>5</sup>. In these tasks, students focus on the linguistic correspondence between words and sentences without making a deeper analysis or

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<sup>5</sup> The term *exam translation* is also used to refer to using translation in exam situations. At lower levels, these tasks are typically related to the idea of school translation although at higher levels some of the exam tasks can be more communicative (see Heltai 1995).

considering the function of the text (if they translate texts) (Gile 2009: 101). This means that contextual factors, such as the target audience or the purpose of the text are either not emphasised or are completely disregarded. Thus, in translation studies, this type of translation is not even considered translation. Furthermore, in most cases the audience is the teacher, who acts as the primary evaluator (self- and/or peer evaluation is rarely used).

In contrast, professional translation refers to real-life, communicative activities done by individuals who (typically) have formal qualification and/or experience (*real translation*, Klaudy 2003: 133) or to realistic pedagogical tasks in professional settings (*simulated translation* Vermes 2010)<sup>6</sup>. Professional translator training aims to develop students' translation competence (as a complex concept) and to prepare students for the professional translation market. In professional training, the activities refer mostly to direct translation (from the foreign into the native language). The context of text production and reception are of utmost importance, and the tasks try to imitate real-life translation situations as closely as possible (Gile 2009).

Somewhere in between the professional training context and school translation (typically at lower levels of foreign language learning) is a unique pedagogical setting where translation is seen both as a (language) learning tool and as a valuable skill in itself. For example, translation courses incorporated into foreign language degree programmes at the bachelor's level aim not only to improve students' foreign and native language competences but also to develop their translation competence as such in order to prepare them for various translation and language mediation situations in real life. Since the tasks include various written and oral communicative translation (and mediation) activities, it is beneficial to apply the basic principles of professional translator training. However, it is important to emphasise that the primary aim of these translation courses is *not* to train professional translators because that would require longer and more targeted training. Focusing on this setting in the German context, Klein-Braley and Franklin (1998) argued that modern foreign language programmes should provide students with vocationally relevant and marketable skills. According to them, foreign language graduates cannot compete with professional translators in the main translation market, but they can get practical training for language-oriented jobs, where they often have to perform various types of translation. They refer to this setting as *vocational translation teaching*, which was later used also by Stewart (2008). However, Stewart used the term *vocational translation training* (and not teaching), and defined it as “professionally-

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<sup>6</sup> The term *pedagogical translation* is also used in the literature (e.g., Delisle 1988, Klaudy 2003, Leonardi 2010), but it is rather confusing as it refers to both professional and foreign language educational settings.

oriented translation in pedagogical settings, whereby trainees are prepared for the translation market” (Stewart 2008: sec. 2). The use of the words ‘training’ and ‘translation market’ makes his concept rather ambiguous since they are typically associated with the professional training context and professional practices. Most probably Stewart was in fact referring to translation courses within foreign language programmes which emphasise the communicative aspects of translation because he used the words *translation training* (instead of *translator training*) and his main focus was inverse translation (translation from the native to the foreign language), which is not so typical in professional translator training. Nevertheless, the example illustrates the confusion surrounding basic concepts and terms, and indicates the need for more precision, consistency within and across disciplines.

Later Peverati (2013) criticised the purely vocational orientation of translation courses within foreign language programmes (she focused on the Italian context), pointing out that even though these courses are often short in duration, they put too much emphasis on professional translation and ignore the diversity of translation as an activity as well as the necessary levels of expertise. As a result, they might generate “false expectations and unrealistic assumptions” (para. 9). Referring to optional translation courses offered in isolation, Peverati mentioned that usually the aims and contents of the courses are not fully integrated with the curriculum of the whole degree programme (para. 11). According to her, it is more beneficial to incorporate translation courses into a larger module consisting of several related courses with interrelated aims and contents. Peverati emphasises that instead of an overly vocational orientation, the focus of translation courses within foreign language teaching could be the development of students’ *transferable generic skills*, which can be utilised in a wide range of educational and real-life settings, including language-oriented jobs where intercultural communication skills are essential. Earlier Kelly (2005, 2007) examined the relationship between translation competence and transferable generic skills and found a considerable overlap (see *Table 2*). Drawing on this idea, Peverati concluded that a pedagogical approach explicitly focusing on the development of transferable generic skills through communicative translation activities might be more suitable for translation courses offered within foreign language degree programmes.

Table 2. Links between translation competence and generic competences (Peeverati 2013: para 27, based on Kelly 2007: 136)

| TRANSLATOR COMPETENCE<br>(KELLY 2005)  | GENERIC COMPETENCES<br>(GONZÁLEZ AND WAGENAAR 2003)  |
|--|--|
| Communicative and textual competence (in at least two language and cultures)       | Oral and written communication in the native language<br>Knowledge of a second language<br>Capacity for analysis and synthesis   |
| Cultural and/or intercultural competence   | Appreciation of diversity and multiculturalism<br>Ability to work in an international context<br>Understanding of cultures and customs of other countries  |
| Subject area or thematic competence<br>Professional and/or instrumental competence | Basic general knowledge<br>Grounding in basic knowledge of the profession<br>Elementary computing skills<br>Information management skills<br>Ethical commitment<br>Research skills<br>Concerns for quality   |
| Attitudinal and/or psychophysiological competence                                  | Capacity to learn<br>Capacity to adapt to new situations<br>Capacity for generating new ideas (creativity)<br>Leadership<br>Ability to work autonomously<br>Initiative and entrepreneurial spirit<br>Will to succeed   |
| Interpersonal or social competence   | Teamwork<br>Interpersonal skills<br>Ability to work in an interdisciplinary team<br>Ability to communicate with experts in other fields<br>Appreciation of diversity and multiculturalism<br>Ability to work in an international context<br>Ethical commitment |
| Strategic or organisational competence   | Capacity for organisation and planning<br>Problem solving<br>Decision making<br>Critical and self-critical abilities<br>Capacity for applying knowledge in practice<br>Project design and management<br>Concern for quality                                    |

The distinction between *translation competence* and *translator competence* (Király 2000) is related to this idea. Translation competence refers to all the skills and knowledge needed for effective mediation between two languages, while translator competence includes other specific sub-competences necessary to join the community of professional translators (Király 2000: 13). In translation courses offered outside professional training contexts, the emphasis is primarily on the former. Expanding this idea, Bernardini (2004) introduced the terms *translator education* and *translator training*, and argued that professional translator training should only start after a solid foundation stage (i.e., *translator education*) which develops awareness, reflectiveness and resourcefulness. Her idea is extremely relevant for the pedagogical context investigated in this dissertation. Awareness refers to seeing language as

“a network of connected choices, which are influenced by the culture they express, which in their turn they influence” (Bernardini 2004: 20). It is an essential goal of translator education to change students’ initial views on translation and to make them understand that translation is not simply a mechanical process of replacing words or sentences. The second aim of translator *education* that Bernardini (2004: 20) mentioned was reflectiveness, defined as “the capacity to practice, store and use more or less specific strategies and procedures involved in translation”, which seems to be related to the concept of transfer competence and translation routine. Finally, resourcefulness refers to the ability to “exploit finite resources indefinitely”, as well as “to cope with new and unexpected challenges, and to acquire new resources autonomously, as the need arises” (2004: 21), which basically means being able to use language and translation strategies creatively. The above-mentioned goals are in fact equally important in professional training, but Bernardini argued that translation courses or programmes outside (or before) the professional context should primarily focus on these. She also pointed out that assessment in this context should focus on the whole learning process and not solely on the product (the texts).

According to Vienne (1998), if language learners are aware of the basic principles of translation, they will be able to judge the limits of their own competences and know when there is a need to call for a professional translator, which will ultimately lead to better quality (c.f. Fischer 2011b). With regard to quality, Chesterman (1993) suggested that professional and expectancy norms should be explicitly taught in professional training, and translations should be assessed with respect to these norms. Quality and norms are (or should be) equally important in non-professional contexts because in real life translation can refer to public and formal language use. Therefore, discussing the role and function of norms is extremely beneficial for language students as well. In the Hungarian context, these aspects were also mentioned by researchers focusing on the benefits of using translation in foreign language teaching and learning. They emphasised that the use of translation is related to a number of other crucial issues pointing beyond developing foreign language competence, including quality and the prestige of the whole profession (Fischer 2010b, Heltai 1995, Szabari 2001).

González Davies (2004) used the term *translation teaching* to refer to any translation course (at any level) which aims to develop students’ translation skills (it is important to note that in Spain there are translation programmes also at the bachelor’s level). She pointed out that the importance of lower levels should not be underestimated, and reminds us that designing the syllabus of these courses requires a different approach and methodology, which takes into account the learners’ level and needs, the educational context as well as job market



expectations. According to her, the main focus at this level – besides developing language skills – should be instrumentalisation (resourcing and computer skills) and pre-specialisation (introduction to various specialised fields and subject matters) along with the development of cognitive skills and the ability to move away from a purely mechanical translation towards a more reflective practice (transfer skills) (González Davies 2004: 39–42).

Finally, in translation courses that are outside the professional context it is beneficial to base the teaching and evaluation methods on pedagogical principles that emphasise social interaction and the active involvement of students in the learning process. Some authors argue that formal learning in instructed settings which creates diverse and rich learning opportunities (with a focus on genre and discourse) is not only advantageous but may even be indispensable to reach a more advanced (and deeper) level of foreign language competence and to prevent fossilisation (Byrnes 2006, Heltai 1995).

## **2.4 Translation competence, communicative competence, and intercultural competence**

Martínez Melis and Hurtado Albir (2001) pointed out that in order to formulate clear objectives and learning outcomes for a translation programme or course at any level, it is crucial to use a coherent translation competence model and determine what specific components we intend to develop. This is particularly true in the case of the educational context under investigation in this dissertation.

Translation competence and communicative competence are central notions in translation pedagogy and foreign language teaching respectively. A number of theoretical models have been developed, which attempt to describe them in detail. However, several researchers have pointed out that there is a considerable overlap between the current discipline-specific conceptualizations of these constructs. This chapter aims to critically review the most widely used models in translation studies and foreign language learning and teaching in order to explore the interrelationships between them. In the field of multilingual communication the term intercultural (communication) competence is widely used, which seems to be related to both translation and communicative competence. Thus, the discussion of translation and communicative competence is followed by relating these concepts to the most widely used models of intercultural (communication) competence as used in multilingual communication research. The first section consists of five parts, each discussing

a well-known translation competence model from translation studies. These models were used because they have important pedagogical implications for the educational context investigated in this dissertation. The second part discusses the notion of communicative competence as currently understood in foreign language learning and teaching, which is followed by an analysis of its relationship with both translation competence and intercultural (communication) competence.

### 2.4.1 Models of translation competence

In translation studies, there are several models describing translation competence. They conceptualise translation competence in different ways, depending on the researcher's perspective and the particular educational context that the model focuses on. The multitude of theoretical models indicates that in translation studies there is no generally accepted model of translation competence. Drawing on Weinert's (2001) cognitive categories of competence, Lesznyák (2007b) provided a comprehensive overview of the most important approaches to translation competence. She concluded that the various conceptualizations were based on four main differences (Lesznyák 2007b: 189):

- the relationship between language competence and translation competence
- the existence of a transfer (sub)competence
- the status of natural translation and its relation to translational expertise
- the direction of translation as a factor influencing the nature of translation competence.

Concerning the first aspect, Lesznyák outlined three possible relationships between language competence and translation competence (*Figure 3*):

*Figure 3. Language competence and translation competence (adapted from Lesznyák 2007b: 189)*



In the first case, translation competence is viewed as a multi-componential concept, consisting of several sub-competences, one of them being language/linguistic competence (e.g., Campbell 1991, 1998, Dróth 2001, Göpferich 2009, Neubert 2000, PACTE 2011). This perspective is widely adopted in professional translator training, which focuses on the development of each sub-competence. Other models, however, see translation skills as part of the much wider concept of language competence. Particularly in foreign language learning theories, translation is typically viewed as a complex mediation skill which mobilises and integrates comprehension (reading) and production (writing) skills (Bárdos 2005, Malmkjær 1998) although some researchers acknowledge that mediation and translation skills are more than just the summation of language skills (Lado 1961, Stern 1992). In other cases, translation is seen not as a skill but as a language activity, for example in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe 2001). Finally, some argue that translation competence is essentially different from (and qualitatively more than) language competence although they do not deny their interrelationship (Neubert 2000, Pym 2003, Toury 2012). *Figure 3* might look controversial at first, but considering the wide variety of translational situations and the resulting forms of translation, each perspective is equally valid. In real life, the purpose of the communicative situation and the translator's competence vary significantly (c.f. Heltai's 2014), and in pedagogical contexts, the aims of different programmes require different approaches.

With regard to the existence of a natural ability to translate, some researchers view translation as an innate ability, which is inherently part of bilinguals' language competence (e.g., Harris 1977, 1978, Harris and Sherwood 1978). In the professional context, there have been several attempts to describe the essence of translation competence, something that makes professional translation qualitatively different from (and more than) natural translation. This idea was originally suggested by Toury (1986), and the key component has since been referred to as *transfer competence*. Pym's (1992, 2003) minimalist definition of translation is also based on this idea. According to this definition, translation is "a process of generation and selection, a problem-solving process that often occurs with apparent automatism" (Pym, 2003: 489) although, as Lesznyák (2007b) pointed out, Pym did not specify the particular skills and abilities that this problem-solving process required. In an attempt to clarify the concept of translation competence, Malmkjær (2009) also emphasised transfer competence, which she defined as the "translator's knowledge of their languages simultaneously as one system, and as at least separable, and as related (as distinct from their ability to use their

languages individually)” as well as “an ‘unconscious’ mental state reached through a process of cognitive development” (2009: 126). This idea implies that transfer competence refers to the ability to separate the two languages in order to avoid interference, and at the same time, it is the ability to consider them together.

Klaudy (2003) also underlines that translation is a decision-making process, during which translators make conscious choices, which she refers to as *transfer operations*. These obligatory or optional moves can be seen as local translation strategies that result from lexical and structural differences between the source and the target language. Process-based approaches give special attention to the decisions made in different phases of the translation process. For example, Gile’s (1992) sequential model of translation focuses on both the *comprehension* and the *reformulation* phase.

The results of process-oriented empirical research focusing on the development of translation competence can help to understand the concept of translation competence better. Göpferich and Jääskeläinen (2009: 174–175) listed the following main features that characterise more experienced translators:

- They work with larger units of translation,
- they can handle more complex and higher-level problems,
- they focus more on producing the target text and its function, which means that they use macro-strategies,
- they focus less on the source-text, and consider the co- and context more,
- they are more aware of translation problems, are able to generate several equivalents from which they can select more critically when revising and editing the text, which is also more frequent,
- they use reference works more frequently, particularly to solve problems related to target text production instead of source text comprehension, they use several different dictionaries to solve one problem, and they prefer monolingual dictionaries, and
- they direct their conscious attention to more complex aspects of the translation process.

Later Pym (2011: 483) has added that more experienced translators tend to paraphrase more instead of doing word-for-word translation, and they make fewer changes during the revision

phase. They also read faster, rely more on their background knowledge, are able to justify their decisions based on internalised theories and principles, and involve the client more in the decision-making process to avoid risks. Finally, they are more realistic, critical and self-confident. Professional translator training clearly emphasises the development of cognitive, metacognitive and psychological elements of translation competence, but these aspects are highly relevant also for those translation courses in the context of foreign language learning and teaching which aim to develop translation skills in a communicative way.

Finally, as Lesznyák (2007b) pointed out, it is important to consider the direction of translation as it greatly influences the translation process. Heltai (1995: 62) has also noted that the discussion on using translation in foreign language teaching is often on a very general level without clarifying the type of translation (including its direction). In the case of translation courses incorporated into foreign language programmes, it is useful to include a wide variety of translation activities both from and into the foreign language with a clear idea of the main pedagogical purpose(s) of the tasks.

#### ***2.4.1.1 Neubert's multicomponential model***

According to Neubert (2000: 4), translators are 'polyhistorians in an age of specialisation', and they are expected to possess a wide range of skills along with extensive knowledge. He mentioned five primary components of translation competence, which are hierarchically structured. *Language competence* refers to linguistic knowledge in two languages, while *textual competence* is related to discourse proficiency, and includes the knowledge of language-specific textual norms. *Subject competence* involves encyclopaedic and specialist knowledge, *cultural competence* refers to knowledge about cultural patterns in the source and target cultures, and finally, *transfer competence* is understood as the techniques and strategies necessary for rendering the source text in another language, which Neubert considers the most practical and performance-related aspect (the *doing* aspect) as opposed to the other four dimensions (the *knowing* aspects). In Neubert's view, transfer competence makes translation different from other types of communication, thus he views it as the essence of translational expertise (2000: 6). All the other competences are indispensable for translation, but according to Neubert, transfer competence needs to be developed separately and in a systematic way. Neubert's idea of transfer competence is very close to Pym's (1992, 2003) minimalist conceptualization of translation competence, as well as to Göpferich's (2009) concept of *translation routine activation competence* and Hönig's (1995) notion of *microstrategies*. In Hönig's (1995) model, translation competence consists of an associative element (i.e., transfer

competence) and the ability to apply *microstrategies* (shifts between the source and target text) as well as *macrostrategies* (global strategies based on the function of the target text).

#### **2.4.1.2 The holistic PACTE model**

The PACTE model was originally presented in 2000, and was developed by a research group at the Autonomous University of Barcelona. The original model was later modified several times (in 2003, 2005, 2009 and 2011), based on empirical research results. Currently, it is one of the most elaborate translation competence models, which is widely used in translator training. However, it can also be adopted as a general framework in lower level translation courses that aim to develop translation skills in a communicative way. The latest version of the model comprises the following six inter-related components (PACTE 2011: 33):

- *bilingual* sub-competence, which refers to pragmatic, socio-linguistic, textual, grammatical and lexical knowledge
- *extra-linguistic* sub-competence, involving general and field-specific cultural and encyclopaedic knowledge
- *knowledge about translation* as an activity and as a profession,
- *instrumental* sub-competence, which is related to the use of resources and information management,
- *strategic* sub-competence, consisting mainly of procedural knowledge that activates the other sub-competences and controls the whole translation process (from planning to evaluation, including identifying and solving various translation problems), and
- *psycho-physiological* components, including cognitive (e.g., memory, perception, attention) and attitudinal elements (e.g., intellectual curiosity, perseverance, precision) as well as other abilities (e.g., creativity and critical thinking).

An important feature of the model is that it distinguishes between translation competence and performance, and emphasises that translation is essentially a problem-solving activity. The model attributes a central role to the strategic component, which is thought to control the whole translation process, and thus helps translators to make conscious decisions. The model breaks down subject competence into two separate subcategories: knowledge about translation and instrumental competence, which suggests that translation is seen as a

professional activity. In translation courses integrated into foreign language programmes, it is also important to discuss issues related to quality and the prestige of the profession (see Section 2.3.3). The PACTE model also includes a separate psycho-physiological component, which overlaps with Neubert's transfer competence although it contains dispositional elements as well, which are indispensable in real-life translation situations.

The acquisition of translation competence is viewed as a dynamic and cyclical process. It happens through the development of the sub-competences (integrating new knowledge and skills while restructuring existing ones). Translation competence is regarded as expert knowledge, and the model emphasises that three sub-competences require special attention since they are missing from pre-translational competence: knowledge about translation, strategic sub-competence and instrumental sub-competence. The model also highlights the role of individual learning strategies in the development of translation competence. Learning strategies are also crucial for language learners performing communicative translation tasks, and was expanded later by Bergen (2009) (see section 2.4.1.4).

#### ***2.4.1.3 Göpferich's model of translation competence***

Göpferich's (2009) translation competence model is based on the PACTE model with some modifications. It consists of five sub-competences: (1) *communicative competence*, (2) *domain competence*, (3) *tools and research competence*, (4) *translation routine activation competence* and (5) *psychomotor competence*, but strategic competence and motivation also have a central role. In the model translation routine activation competence is seen as a separate component, referring to "the knowledge and the abilities to recall and apply certain – mostly language-pair-specific – (standard) transfer operations (or shifts) which frequently lead to acceptable target-language equivalents" (2009: 185). This idea is close to the concept of transfer competence. According to Göpferich, since bilinguals do not possess this sub-competence, it needs to be developed through formal, targeted training.

In addition to these competences, Göpferich emphasises three important factors that affect performance in a pedagogical setting: (1) the translation assignment, (2) the translator's self-concept and professional ethos (i.e., students' ideas about translators' social roles and responsibilities, which are also shaped by the content and methods used by the teacher), and (3) the translator's psycho-physical disposition (including such traits as perseverance or critical thinking). The availability of external tools and sources of information as well as the working conditions are also thought to have a key role in the translation process. These ideas

are essential in professional translator training, but they have important pedagogical implications for translation courses built into foreign language programmes as well.

#### ***2.4.1.4 Bergen's model of translation competence acquisition***

Bergen (2009) developed a process-based model of translation competence acquisition, integrating cognitive models of second language acquisition with established theories from translation studies. It is a detailed and comprehensive pedagogical model with an interdisciplinary approach, and since it contains a number of practical ideas concerning the use of activities and teaching methods, it can easily be adopted in translation courses outside professional contexts.

Bergen underlined that foreign language acquisition is similar to translation competence acquisition because both are strategic learning processes in the sense that they are both oriented towards a goal, they are both cognitive in nature (they involve problem solving) and their main aim is to achieve autonomy in learning. Nevertheless, he highlighted some basic differences between them, for example the level of learners' language competence. Translation students are typically at an upper-intermediate or advanced level (depending on the educational context), but the direction of translation also matters a great deal as it engages language skills and other competences in a different way.

Bergen also emphasised that communication in the foreign language is an example of *descriptive* language use. This means that learners can express their own ideas freely, whereas translation can be considered *interpretive* language use, which means that the translator is restricted not only by the original message in the source text but also by the pragmatic and cultural context of the source and the target text (also mentioned in the relevance theoretical approach to translation by Gutt 1991). According to some researchers, these restrictions have a positive effect (e.g., Cook 1998, Duff 1989) when translating into the foreign language since they force language learners to tackle problematic areas, which are easier to avoid when communicating their own ideas in the foreign language. At more advanced levels, contextual restrictions in translation often pose challenges for learners (in both directions of translation), but this can increase their awareness of language and cultural norms and conventions.

Sewell (2004) also mentioned this idea when she compared the use of written translation and oral communicative activities (particularly role-plays) in higher education foreign language programmes. Sewell highlighted further benefits of translation being an example of interpretive language use. According to her, translation can help some students gain more confidence as they are not forced to express their own thoughts, and thus they do

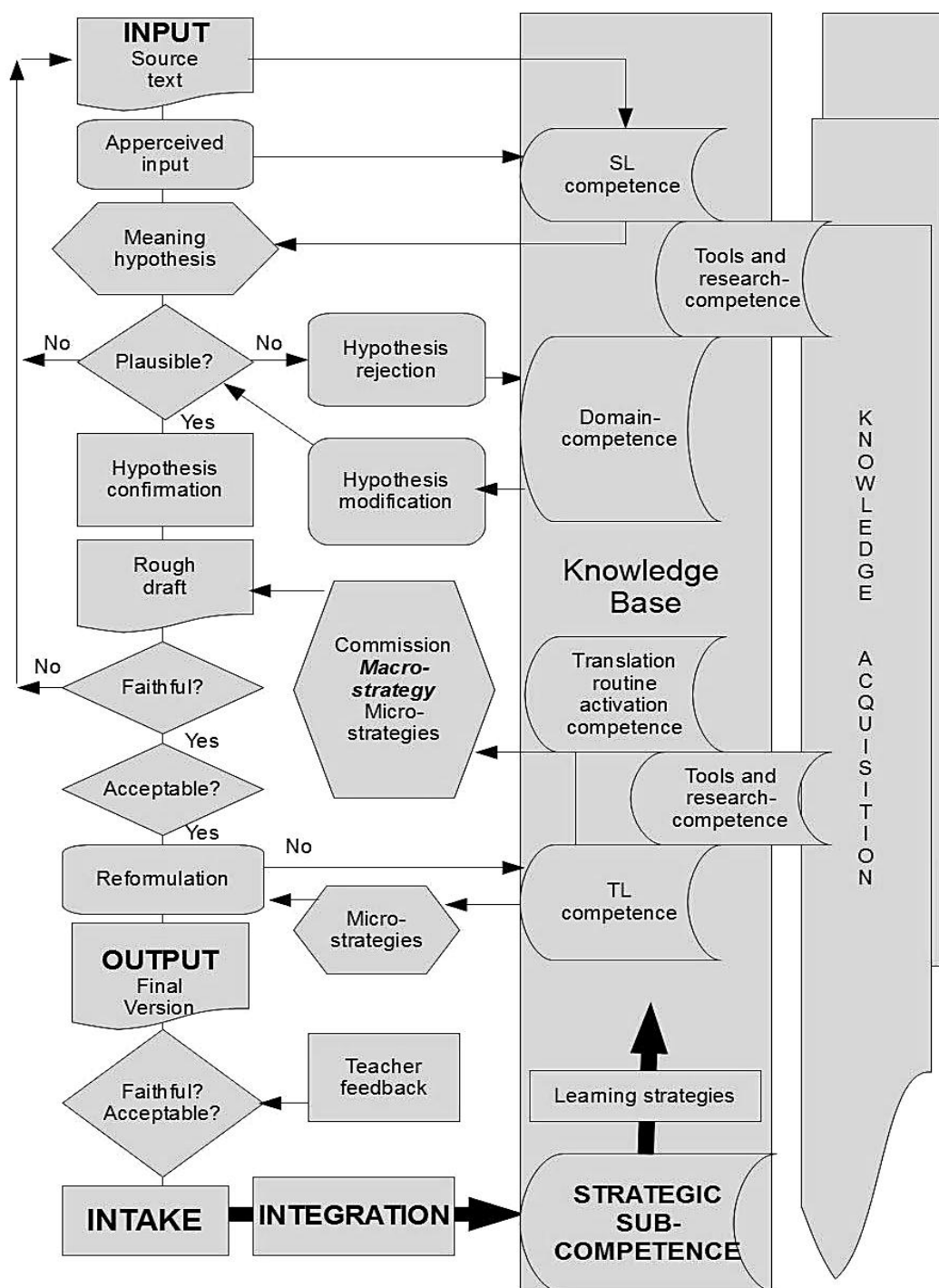


not put their self-image at risk (regarding to the content of the message). She also emphasised that written translation tasks leave more opportunity for students to monitor their language use, which can result in lower levels of learner anxiety and less frustration, particularly in the case of inverse translation (from L1 into L2). Anxiety can originate from gaps in students' competence, which becomes more apparent when students have to understand and produce utterances immediately. These ideas seem to be even more valid at earlier stages of learning a foreign language, and they can justify the introduction of shorter, communicative written translation activities even at lower levels.

Concerning the benefits of written translation, Bergen also emphasised that students usually have more time to understand the source text and to produce (and revise) the target text, and during the comprehension and production phase, they are allowed to use certain tools and resources that are unavailable in oral communicative situations. It has to be noted that Bergen was referring to well-designed written translation tasks, most probably home translation assignments. In real life, however, particularly in oral translation situations, the levels of frustration can be very high, and students can also risk losing face.

As mentioned earlier, Bergen's (2009) model has a pedagogical orientation, integrating a number of general learning, language learning and translation competence acquisition theories. These theories include the Input-Interaction-Output Model of second language acquisition by Gass (1988), Gass and Mackey's (2006) model of interaction and learning (based on constructivist and social constructivist learning theories, which emphasise – among other things –, the role of negotiation, feedback, noticing and cognitive conflict (see also Limón 2001), Gile's (1992) sequential model of the translation process as well as the PACTE (2005) model of translation competence. *Figure 4* shows the typical steps that translation students take during the translation (and learning) process and the most important factors in the learning process.

Figure 4. Bergen's process-oriented integrative model of translation competence acquisition (Bergen 2009: 240  
Reprinted by permission of Akadémiai Kiadó)



In Bergen's model, *input* is the actual source text, which is the same for every student. However, the comprehension of the text (*apperceived input*) may be different for individual students, depending on their knowledge and past experiences. Bergen points out that apperception is an important stage in the translation process as misinterpretation can often

happen (even to experienced translators in real-life situations) when students have to translate unknown terms, false friends, idiomatic or ambiguous language (even when the source text is in the students' native language). Therefore, noticing is crucial in this phase, which can be facilitated by pair- and group work, which offer opportunities for students to compare and discuss their own interpretations. This seems to be particularly beneficial if the source text is in a foreign language, when comprehension greatly depends on students' level of language proficiency. Bergen also emphasised the role of teacher intervention at this stage, which should focus on developing text comprehension strategies, particularly by promoting discussion and cooperation with others and by encouraging the use of various external resources.

In Bergen's (2009) model, meta-cognition has a central role, which should be encouraged from the beginning. For example, learning journals clearly promote self-reflection and awareness. The benefits of reflective learning methods are highlighted by several other researchers, who use different terms, such as translation annotation (Adab 2000), translation diary (Fox 2000, Martínez Melis and Hurtado Albir 2001), translation journal (Robinson 2012), translation commentary (Shei 2005) or Integrated Problem and Decision Reporting (IPDR) (Gile 2004b). Reflective methods are considered one of the most effective tools to develop students' independent learning skills, enabling them to take responsibility for their own learning.

Based on Gile's (1992) sequential model of the translation process, Bergen argues that students first create a meaning hypothesis for the source text, the plausibility of which is then tested. Using their extra-linguistic background knowledge, students then either confirm, reject or modify their hypotheses. After accepting the meaning hypotheses, they produce the first rough draft of the text. At this point, students again have to make decisions, but this time with regard to the target text's faithfulness to the source text and its acceptability in the target language. Concerning peer feedback in this phase, Bergen also takes into account the direction of translation. When students translate into their mother tongue, judging the faithfulness of their peers' texts depends largely on their comprehension of the source text, while assessing the acceptability of each other's texts can be easier. However, when students translate into the foreign language, judging acceptability becomes more difficult.

It has to be added that when students translate into their native language, peer feedback is only possible if the class is linguistically homogeneous. This model (like most translation competence models) does not consider the case of culturally/linguistically heterogeneous classes, which is indeed very rare in professional training, but can often happen

in the context of higher education, for example in language classes integrated into international master's programmes. Translation activities can serve several useful purposes in even in these cases although the only possible direction of translation is from the students' native language into a common foreign language (for example English). There is a wide range of motivating and creative activities that can be used, even including authentic situations (for example when one student acts as a mediator). Translation activities can deepen intercultural understanding and awareness of the politically sensitive nature of intercultural communication, increase awareness of the complexity and ambiguity of language, engage students' emotions through their own cultural identity, prepare students for real-life mediating situations, and encourage awareness of the academic and field-specific register in their native language (which is often neglected because English is the language of instruction).

Related to the peer feedback phase, Bergen mentions a very interesting research method that can provide useful insights into the translation process, similar to think-aloud methods. His suggestion is to ask students to translate a text in pairs and record or videotape the discussion process. This way, students are 'forced' to verbalise their thoughts more naturally than if they work alone, and the involvement of another student makes them express, justify and explain their ideas very clearly so that the other person can understand them. Another advantage of this method is that working with a peer can divert their attention from the research situation.

In the following stages in Bergen's model, the rough draft is tested once more against faithfulness and acceptability, in which students need to resort to various translation strategies (both macro- and micro-strategies). Regarding macro-strategies, the translation assignment is of utmost importance, which has to be clear as to the pragmatic context and the intended function of the target text. In turn, when selecting the appropriate micro-strategies, students have to utilise their translation routine activation competence (c.f. Göpferich 2009). At this stage, students also have to apply their existing knowledge about text types and textual norms in the target language as well as their background knowledge about the subject. This process illustrates the complexity of translation, pointing to the relevance of the functional-textual approach.

In Bergen's model, the final version of the text is the output. It is the final point at which the faithfulness and acceptability of the target text are tested. Bergen emphasises the role of teacher feedback in this stage although he notes that the type of optimal feedback depends on the student's competence level and the type of the error. Since the aim of the whole process is to develop students' translation competence, Bergen points out that the key

stage is the last one, during which output becomes intake. This depends primarily on the level of analysis that students make. Therefore, teachers are again encouraged to train students' meta-cognitive learning strategies through a wide range of shorter and more targeted tasks, which direct students' attention towards the translation process and translation strategies. A very positive aspect of Bergen's model is that the end of the process is not output but intake. This implies that the main emphasis is on the learning process, not on the product. Overall, Bergen's detailed model provides an excellent framework for developing translation competence also within foreign language programmes as it contains a number of concrete recommendations related to course design, syllabus development and teaching methodology.

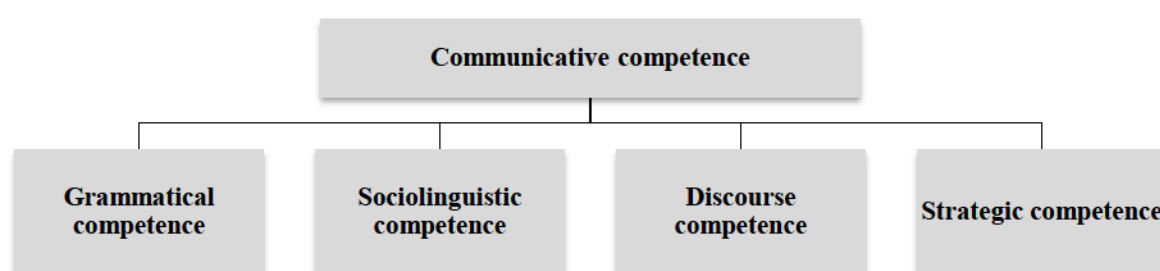
#### ***2.4.1.5 Campbell's model of translation competence***

Campbell's (1998) model is different from the previously discussed models in that it focuses on inverse translation (from L1 into L2). Inverse translation has received more attention in recent years both in foreign language pedagogy and translation studies even though in professional translator training it is not a typical direction (see Adab 2005, Beeby Lonsdale 1996, Cook 2010, Kiraly 1995, Mikoyan 2000, Stewart 2008). According to Campbell (1998), translation inverse translation is an inevitable practice in today's multicultural contexts. He emphasised that the primary difficulty that translators face in this kind of translation is to produce a target text that sounds natural. In his model, translation competence comprises three components: *target language textual competence*, *disposition*, and *monitoring competence*. Even though the model implies the significance of individual aspects, it places the emphasis on target language textual competence, which refers to the awareness of register and genre differences in various texts. According to Biber and Conrad (2009), learning register and genre differences is one of the most challenging tasks for non-native speakers of a language. They add that that English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses can help students to recognise differences in the patterns of language use. From a cross-cultural perspective, translation activities (particularly inverse translation) also seem to be excellent means to increase students' awareness about the linguistic and cultural conventions and norms that regulate language use.

## 2.4.2 The notions of communicative competence and intercultural communication competence and their relationship with translation competence

In foreign language learning and teaching, communicative competence is a central notion that underpins communicative approaches. The term was coined by Hymes (1972, 1974), who attempted to capture the interrelatedness of competence and performance, separated earlier by Chomsky (1965). The most widely used model (Canale and Swain 1980, modified later by Canale 1983) mentions four main components of communicative competence (*Figure 5*).

*Figure 5. Communicative competence (based on Canale 1983: 6–12)*

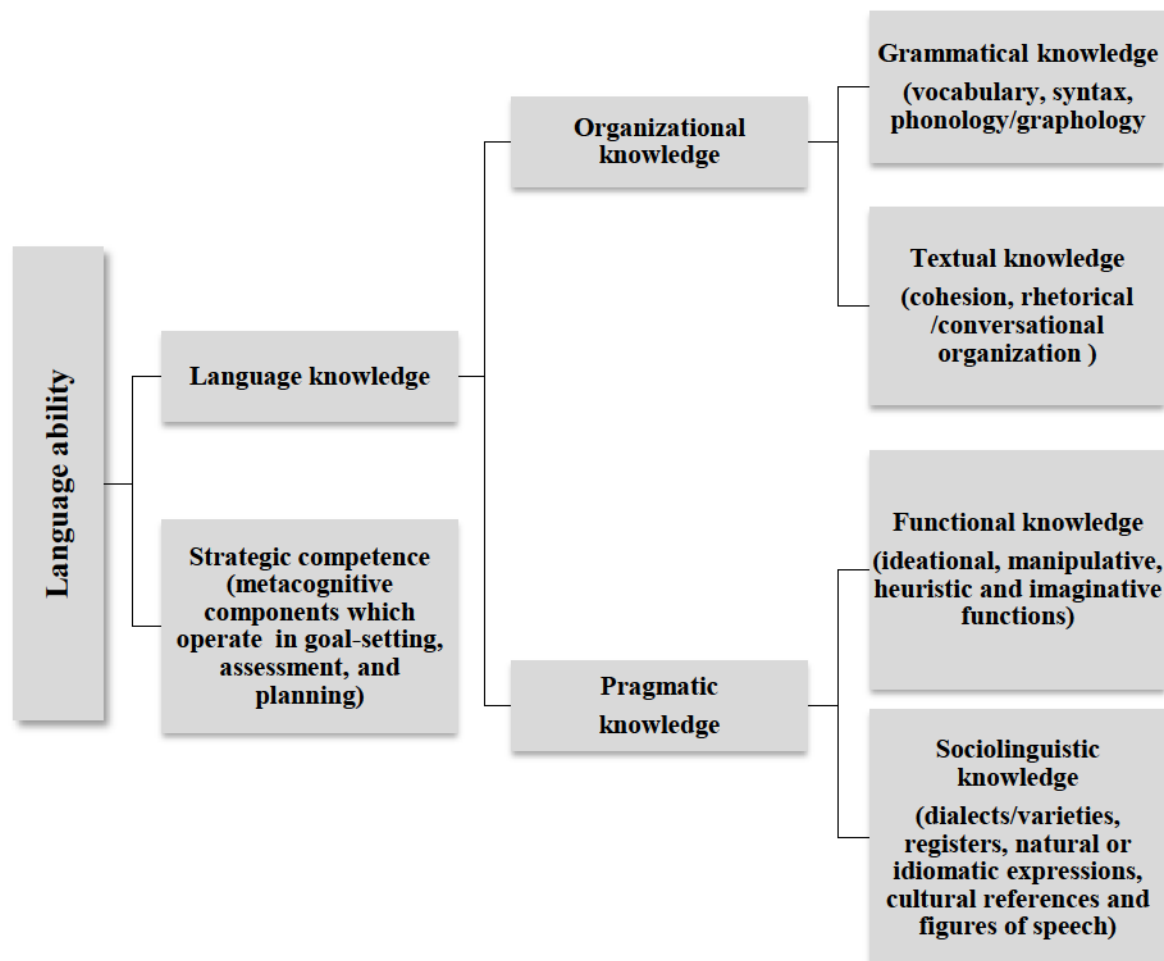


In this model, *grammatical competence* (a concept integrating both competence and performance) refers to the mastery of the language code (including phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics), which is necessary to produce accurate and fluent utterances. The other three competences are related to interaction. *Sociolinguistic competence* involves socio-cultural rules of language use, which are necessary to produce utterances that are appropriate (both the meaning and the form) in a given socio-cultural context and communicative situation. *Discourse competence*, which was added to the original model by Canale (1983), refers to the means of achieving cohesion and coherence. Finally, *strategic competence* comprises verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that can increase the effectiveness of communication, and can compensate for communication breakdown due to performance variables or insufficient grammatical, sociolinguistic or discourse competence.

This model has been widely used in communicative approaches to foreign language learning and teaching although it has been modified and extended over time. Bachman (1990), for example, proposed his model of *Communicative Language Ability (CLA)*, which was further elaborated by Bachman and Palmer (1996). Bachman and Palmer's (1996) model consists of two main components: *language knowledge* and *strategic knowledge*. Language knowledge is further divided into *organizational (grammatical and textual)* and *pragmatic*

(*functional* and *sociolinguistic*) knowledge, while strategic knowledge refers to various metacognitive strategies (Figure 6).

Figure 6. Language ability (based on Bachmann and Palmer 1996: 66–71)



In contrast to traditional approaches that view language ability as the summation of four skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking), Bachmann and Palmer (1996: 75) emphasised that language use was not an abstract and general phenomenon, but “takes place, or is realised, in the performance of specific situated language use tasks”. Thus, they view the four traditional macro-skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) not as part of language ability but rather as its actual realisations in specific language use situations for a particular purpose. It is interesting to note that the authors only mention the four macro-skills, without referring to oral or written translation, which suggests a monolingual orientation.

Bachmann and Palmer’s (1996) ideas seem to underpin the Council of Europe’s (2001) Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), where the term ‘skill’ is not used. Instead, language activities are viewed as actual performances where

communicative language competence is activated through production, reception, interaction (the combination of production and reception) or mediation. It is worthy of note that this document lists mediation as a language activity. However, mediation activities include all types of oral and written translation (formal and informal as well as professional and non-professional), which should be more clearly distinguished, at least in terms of qualifications and/or necessary experience. This problem indicates the lack of discussion between translation studies and foreign language learning and teaching.

On closer inspection, there is a considerable overlap between the models of communicative competence (or language ability) and translation competence (outlined in 2.4.1). Translation (at least in real-life situations or as a communicative pedagogical activity) clearly activates each component of language ability (as understood by Bachmann and Palmer 1996) or communicative competence (Canale 1983) although as Dróth (2011) has recently pointed out, when translation is used as a traditional, out-of-context pedagogical task (i.e., school translation) or as a testing tool at language exams (in most cases), not all the elements of language ability are used. These tasks usually activate grammatical competence (Canale 1983) without requiring sociolinguistic and textual competences. However, the direction of translation, which is related to the main aim of the translation task, is also important. When the direction of translation is from the foreign into the native language, the main aim is typically to test the individual's reading comprehension skills, while translation tasks into the foreign language usually intend to test students' writing skills and language (mainly grammatical and lexical) proficiency.

Concerning inverse translation, Dévény's (2008) empirical research – focusing on foreign language mediation tasks in language exams –, obtained interesting results. She found that mediation from the native into a foreign language could be regarded as a separate skill, independent of the four traditional language skills and qualitatively more than reading comprehension and writing. Thus, she has argued that bilingual language examinations that include translation tasks into a foreign language test a specific skill that is not measured in monolingual language exams. Heltai (1995) also argued that the summary writing task (still part of the C1 level Hungarian bilingual ORIGO language exam) could be considered a real communicative task. Since students have to summarise a Hungarian text in the target language (typically an authentic newspaper article), they cannot do a mechanical, word-for-word translation. Dévény's (2008) results seem to support the idea that communicative translation and mediation tasks require more than just the traditional language skills.



However, in real life it is still a commonly held view that a high level of foreign language competence is sufficient to translate.

Unfortunately, the use of translation as a pedagogical or testing tool is subject to political or ideological influences. For example, in Hungary, with the diversification of available exams and the popularity of such monolingual language exams as Cambridge English, TOEFL or IELTS, translation is no longer regarded as an important skill in foreign language learning and teaching even though there is no solid scientific and pedagogical evidence justifying this view (as noted also by Widdowson 2003). As a result, teachers at the primary and secondary level typically do not use communicative translation tasks, most probably also due to associating it with the mechanical and uncommunicative task of school translation (confirmed also by the results of the European Commission's study involving seven EU countries in 2013). This, however, can negatively affect the perceived usefulness of real-life and communicative translation activities that have enormous pedagogical value.

As argued above, translation activities seem to activate all elements of language competence and engage both receptive and productive skills. Focusing on the development of bilingual competence (understood as an individual's ability to use L1 and L2 actively and express themselves in both languages<sup>7</sup>) and translation competence, Presas (2000) concluded that simply improving language competences does not guarantee the development of translation competence. She argued that the process of becoming an expert translator consists of three stages: (1) acquiring communicative competence in two languages (both oral and written production and reception), (2) restructuring the already existing mechanisms of code-switching and bilingual memory, and (3) developing a mechanism to control interference (Presas 2000: 29). Presas listed three important factors that affect the actual performance and the desired level of receptive and productive skills: the direction of translation, the modality (oral/written), and the specific language combination. For Presas, the ability to control interference seems to be central to the development of translation competence. Earlier Lörcher (1992) argued that in elementary forms of translation, students systematically recourse to their native language, similar to the initial phases of foreign language learning. Thus, the mother tongue functions like a filter when receiving and producing the foreign language. Concerning register and genre differences, the prevailing language patterns (norms and conventions) in the mother tongue are very strong, thus in inverse translation interference

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<sup>7</sup> It is important to note that bilingualism is a broad term, and there are many different interpretations of the notion in different fields. In fact, Wei (2000 as cited in Gass, Behney and Plonsky 2013: 480–481) lists as many as 37 different types. Apparently, Presas uses the term to refer to 'productive bilingualism'.

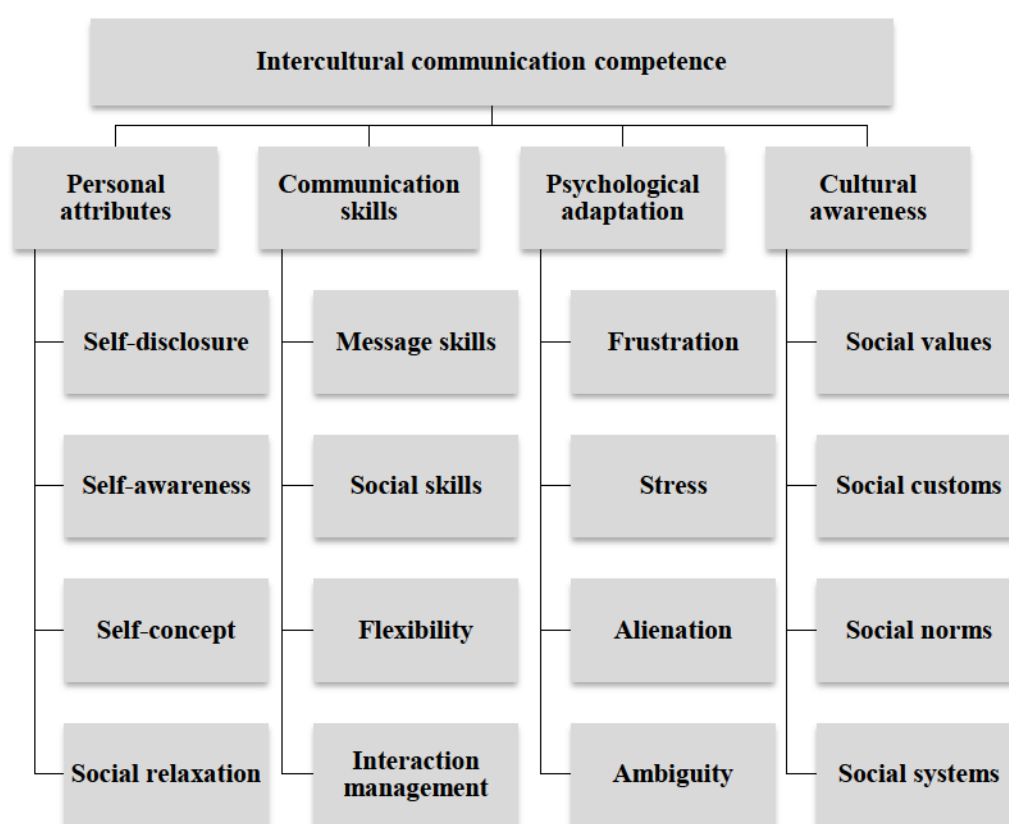
is very common. The result is a text that does not sound natural in the target language due to errors and deviations from the target language norms, particularly at the level of phraseology (for example the use of collocations, as pointed out also by Heltai 2005a, 2009). Presas' (2000) study is interesting although it puts the main emphasis on linguistic aspects without mentioning other important sub-competences (e.g., PACTE 2011, discussed in 2.4.1.2) or non-language influences in translation, which can also affect interference. Nevertheless, the relationship between the traditional basic language skills and translation competence is an interesting area of research, particularly from a pedagogical perspective.

Process-oriented approaches devote special attention to reading comprehension as an important part of the translation process (Shreve et al. 1993). Dudits (2011) investigated the cognitive mechanisms involved in reading for the purposes of translation and enumerated various types of reading (with specific functions) that constitute the complex notion of *reading for translation*. He defined reading for translation as “a set of strategically coordinated reading operations (manifested in the multi-level cognitive processing of written texts) executed by the translator in various phases of the translation process – with the purpose of skimming texts, reading texts for information, reading texts for pleasure, analysing texts, scanning texts, proofreading texts and reading texts for typographical errors – in order to carry out a commission to produce a target-language text” (Dudits 2010: 8). Although his main focus was on the practice of professional translators, these strategies are crucial also in non-professional translation, and can be used as a basis for shorter, targeted comprehension tasks in translation courses within foreign language programmes that aim to develop translation competence. Functional-textual approaches to translation also emphasise these strategies in the pre-translation source-text analysis stage, but reading strategies are also important in later phases of the translation process (including the revision stage).

Since translation can be regarded as a form of intercultural communication, translators can also be viewed as intercultural mediators, who need more than solely linguistic skills. Most intercultural communication competence models comprise a wide range of attitudes, skills and knowledge (along with cultural awareness), and they typically have both intra- and interpersonal dimensions (e.g., Byram 1997, 2003, Byram, Nichols and Stevens 2001, Chen 1989, Chen and Sarosta 1998, Deardorff 2006, Kupka 2008, Kupka and Everett 2007, Spitzberg 2012, Ting-Toomey and Chung 2011). According to Ting-Toomey and Chung (2011), successful (flexible) intercultural communication have three general features: (1) appropriateness (the behaviour is regarded as proper by cultural insiders), (2) effectiveness (the communicators can achieve mutually shared meaning and achieve their goals), and (3)

adaptability (communicators can change their behaviour based on the situation). These features are essential also in mediated communication, particularly in oral translational situations. In an attempt to describe the concept of intercultural communication competence, Chen (1989) developed a framework, which is still widely used. He listed four main components of intercultural communication competence: personal attributes, communication skills, psychological adaptation and cultural awareness, which can be further divided into subcomponents (*Figure 7*).

*Figure 7. Dimensions and components of Intercultural Communication Competence (based on Chen and Starosta 1998: 244)*



When applying this model to mediated communication, it is easy to see that the translator or interpreter (being an extra participant in the interaction) is also responsible for its success. The effectiveness and appropriateness of the communication (particularly in oral situations, when the participants can see and hear each other) depend primarily on the mediator's communication skills, including his or her message skills (the verbal expression of the message and supportive nonverbal cues), social skills (such as empathy, politeness, friendliness), behavioural flexibility (depending on the specific situation) and interaction management (such as turn-taking and maintaining the conversation).

One interesting research topic related to communication skills is translators' inferential processes and the way they interpret and express implicatures and explicatures in the target text. Alves and Gonçalves (2003) conducted an interesting study from a relevance theoretical perspective. Their starting point was that the success of communication largely depends on the interrelations between the interlocutors' individual mental representations of the context (i.e., their cognitive environment). Individuals carry out inferential processes (assumptions) based on the context that emerges from their own cognitive environments, but this process also encompasses a so-called 'mutual context', which refers to the optimal match between the interlocutors' individual contexts in a given communicative situation. The authors argue that the more these individual contexts intersect, the more successful communication is (Alves and Gonçalves 2003: 4). In short, contextual assumptions have an essential role in handling implicatures in discourse.

Besides communication skills, cultural awareness (knowledge of social values, customs, norms and systems in two or more cultures) undoubtedly plays a significant role in mediated communication. In addition, the mediator also has to consider the other participants' personal attributes (how openly they reveal information about themselves, how much self-awareness they have, how they view themselves, and how relaxed they are in interpersonal communication) as well as his or her own ability to cope with psychologically demanding situations (i.e., psychological adaptation, that is tolerating frustration, stress, alienation or ambiguity resulting from cultural differences). Regarding this aspect, process-based research on translation emphasises that translators and interpreters need to have a high tolerance of ambiguity and uncertainty (Tirkkonen-Condit 2000), which becomes even more important if the sender of the message is a non-native speaker of the language. In the case of English as a *lingua franca*, language use can be particularly unpredictable and challenging.

It seems that using intercultural competence models can allow seeing translation from a wider, socio-cultural perspective, not merely as text production but also as human interaction. This in turn can help to better understand translators' and interpreters' personality as well. Mediators cannot avoid influencing the success of communication by their own personality and emotions, particularly in the case of oral translational situations. The personality of translators and interpreters was a rather neglected topic in the past (except for some contributions, such as Henderson 1987), but recently research has started to focus on individual personality differences, including such important aspects as emotional intelligence or intuition (Hubscher-Davidson 2009, 2013a, 2013b).

Culture is also receiving revived attention in foreign language learning and teaching (e.g., Byram 2008, Corbett 2003, Kramsch 1993, 2011). Bárdos (2002, 2004) argued that since each of the four sub-competences of Canale and Swain's (1980) model contains elements of culture, cultural competence could be regarded as the central part of communicative competence (Bárdos 2004: 151). Similarly, Byram (1997) emphasises that intercultural competence strongly influences language competences (linguistic, sociolinguistic and discourse competence). He also pointed out that interculturally competent speakers do not imitate native speakers but rather try to establish and mediate relationships between themselves and individuals or groups representing different cultures. According to Byram (2008: 68), competent intercultural speakers are

...those who have an understanding of the relationship between, on the one hand, their own language and language varieties and their own culture and cultures of different social groups in their society, and, on the one hand, and the language (varieties) and culture(s) of others, between (inter) which they find themselves acting as mediators.

Later, he associated this ability with the notion of 'critical cultural awareness', which means that intercultural speakers are able to:

- identify and interpret explicit or implicit values in documents and events in one's world and other cultures,
- make an evaluative analysis of the documents and events which refers to an explicit perspective and criteria,
- interact and mediate in intercultural exchanges in accordance with explicit criteria, negotiating where necessary a degree of acceptance of those exchanges by drawing upon one's knowledge, skills and attitudes. (Byram 2009: 211)

In short, effective intercultural speakers are able to interpret texts and events in their cultural and situational context, are aware of underlying ideologies (both their own and others') as well as of the possible tension and conflicts between these ideologies, and are able to negotiate agreements and accept differences. These ideas suggest that foreign language learners are also intercultural mediators, who should possess competences that do not appear in traditional language competence models, which have a monolingual orientation.

## **2.5 Designing and developing the syllabus of translation courses within the English BA programme**

In the context of foreign language learning and teaching, translation courses that view translation not only as a (language) learning tool but also as a valuable skill in its own right require careful design. They need to have a solid theoretical foundation supporting the main aims of the course, and they should be based on the analysis of both the immediate and the broad context. This chapter consists of six sections focusing on theoretical ideas relevant for the design and development of translation courses within the English bachelor's degree programme. The first section (2.5.1) reviews functional approaches to translation teaching, including Nord's model of translation-oriented source text analysis and Károly's model of genre transfer competence. This section also discusses theoretical ideas related to native language textual competence and the role of norms. Section 2.5.2 focuses on pedagogical issues related to text selection, such as the criteria for text selection and the importance of EU English and EU texts for Hungarian learners of English. Section 2.5.3 deals with questions related to assessment, including both general ideas and ideas related specifically to holistic and analytical assessment (error correction). Section 2.5.4 focuses on effective teaching approaches and methods that can be used in this setting. Finally, the last section (2.5.5) discusses the role of needs analysis in designing and developing the course syllabus.

### **2.5.1 Functional approaches to teaching translation**

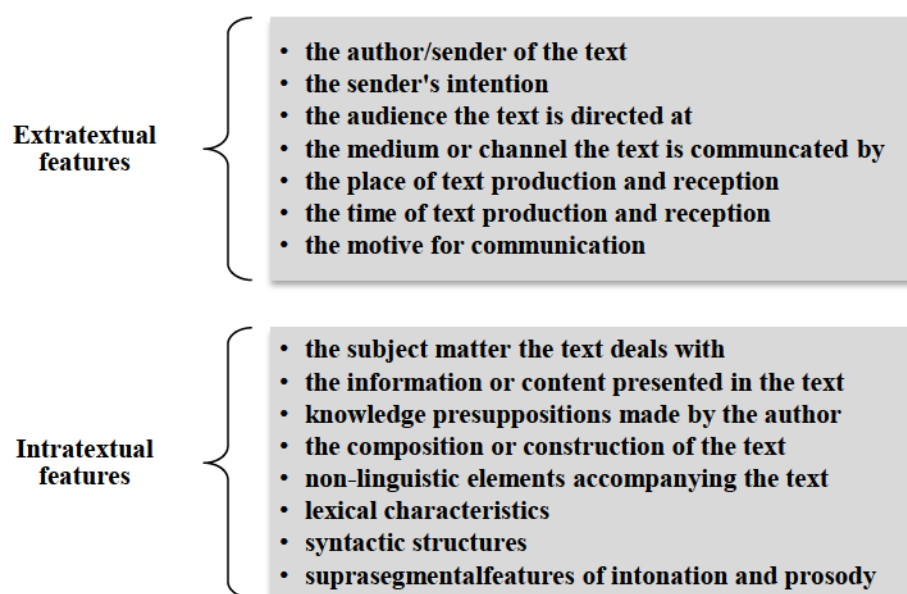
Since one aim of a translation course integrated into foreign language programmes is to develop translation skills, it is beneficial to view translation as a functional activity embedded in a communication situation both in the source and in the target culture. In translation studies, functional approaches (Holz-Mänttari 1984, Nord 2005, Reiss and Vermeer 1984, Vermeer 1978) represent a paradigm shift from equivalence-based linguistic approaches by viewing translation as a social and cultural act of communication, with the focus on target text production. They also emphasise the importance of translation decisions and the responsibility of the translator as an intercultural communicator. Functional approaches, which are widely used in professional training contexts, can help to bridge the gap between linguistic and cultural theories of translation, and can provide an excellent pedagogical framework also outside the professional context since they emphasise that the source and target text function

in a cultural context (House 2009b). Functional approaches are suitable not only for written translation activities but can also be used as a general framework for developing oral translation skills.

### 2.5.1.1 Nord's pre-translation source text analysis

Nord's (2005) model of translation-oriented source text analysis is as an excellent theoretical framework explaining the translation process, and it has important pedagogical implications. Nord (2005) defined translation as a purposeful intercultural activity, emphasising that the linguistic choices the translator makes when producing the target text are determined by the function the target text is meant to fulfil in the target culture. Thus, her model has a functional register orientation. An in-depth source text analysis prior to translation is considered crucial since this is the phase when students familiarise themselves with the context and the text, which helps them make conscious decisions when solving various translation problems. The source text analysis should consider both extratextual and intratextual features (*Figure 8*).

*Figure 8. Translation-oriented source text analysis (based on Nord 2005: 41–42)*



According to Nord (2005), extratextual features determine the overall communicative function of the source text. Their analysis should be followed by focusing on the intratextual features, which shape the effect the text makes on the reader (2005: 41–42). Analysing these features before translation can help students understand that texts always function in a given context, and that the various intratextual characteristics are dependent on the extratextual

features. The model is easily applicable for any written text, but a similar analysis can be extremely useful in the case of oral translation activities as well.

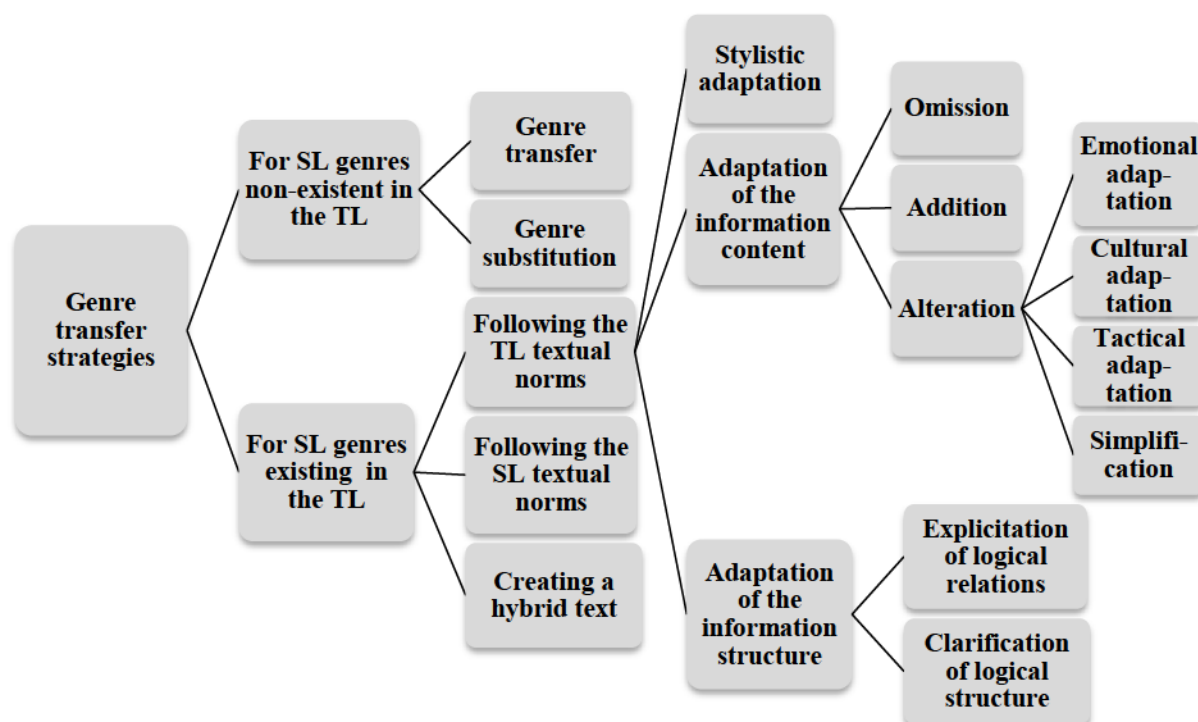
### ***2.5.1.2 Károly's model of genre transfer competence***

According to Károly (2008), functional and cultural approaches to translation have directed researchers' attention to the interplay between discourse community, communicative purpose and text, which is captured by the notion of genre. Károly's (2008) model is based on the idea of discourse-level translation strategies, and its central concept (*genre transfer competence*) excellently grasps the essence of translation competence, which is thought to distinguish novice and expert translators. Genre transfer competence refers to the ability to make conscious decisions in the problem-solving process of translation. The comprehensive model integrates several elements of communication competence, translation competence and intercultural competence, and has a discourse orientation, which makes it particularly well suited for advanced-level specialised translation courses (for example EU translation courses).

Károly has pointed out that preserving the generic identity of the text is of utmost importance in translation, which however, can be rather challenging for students as genre conventions and norms are linked to specific text types and cultures, and may change over time. Thus, translation students need to be able to apply various discourse-level strategies to produce a text that can fulfil its intended function in the target situation. Károly refers to these strategies as *genre transfer strategies*, and emphasises that they can enhance the quality of translation because they can help students to make more conscious decisions when faced with translation problems. The model (*Figure 9*) comprises macro-level strategies (affecting the whole text) and micro-level strategies (related to specific aspects of translation). To be able to select the most appropriate strategies translators need a solid theoretical knowledge about (and awareness of) general and genre-specific norms and conventions in two language(s) and culture(s), but translators need to make this process automatic and creative.



Figure 9. Genre transfer strategies (based on Károly 2008: 6)



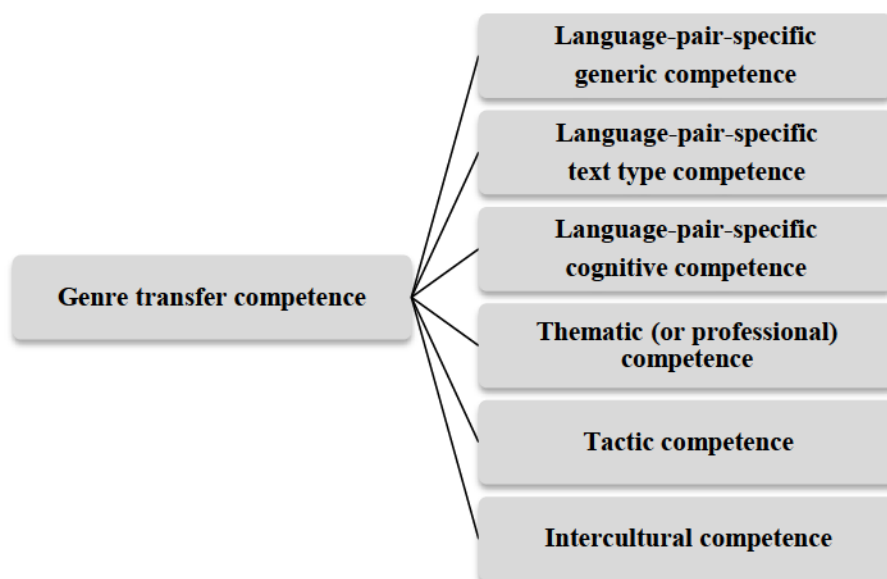
In this model, if the genre of the source text does not exist in the target language, the translator has two choices: either introduce it as a new genre (*genre transfer*) or substitute it with another genre that has similar functions (*genre substitution*). If the genre of the source text exists in the target language, the translator still has to decide what textual norms to follow, those of the source language, the target language or both. If the target language textual norms are followed, the translator can adapt the style, the information content or the information structure. *Stylistic adaptation* means that the translator changes the degree of formality in the text because the target language audience has different expectations. *Adaptation of the information content* can happen in three ways. The first one is omitting information from the target text (*omission*), which typically happens if the background knowledge of the target language audience is different (e.g., the source text was written for experts, but the translation is for laymen) or if the target audience has different expectations in terms of what constitutes relevant information. The second case is *addition*, when the translator adds information to the source text. This can happen because of different target language norms but also when the target audience has different background knowledge and the translator thinks that adding some relevant information can enhance text processing. The third type of adapting the information content is *alteration*, which can refer to four cases: *emotional adaptation* (to achieve the same emotional effect in the target audience), *cultural*

*adaptation* (to fulfil the expectations of the audience in a particular culture, typical when translating advertisements), *tactical adaptation* (to avoid hurting the feelings of the target audience and remain diplomatic, often used when translating political discourse) and *simplification* (to make the text more easily understandable for the target audience by using simpler words and sentences, for example when translating legal documents for non-experts). Finally, translators can adapt the information (or logical) structure of the source text. This can happen in two ways: *explicitation of the logical relations* in the text or *explicitation of the logical (cognitive) structure* of the text, both aiming to facilitate text processing for the target audience.

If the source text genre exists in the target language, translators can decide to preserve or closely follow the textual norms of the source language instead of the target language. This strategy is typical when translating EU documents, when the original source language norms have to be followed even when they do not confirm to the norms of the target language. Finally, if the source genre exists in the target language, translators can apply a strategy whereby they create a hybrid text combining the textual norms of two or more languages or cultures. EU texts typically belong to this category as they result from negotiation involving different cultures and languages. These texts often display features that may be unconventional for the target audience. Still, they are accepted because they can fulfil their communicative function. Károly's (2008) model seems to be underpinned by the principle of relevance since translators need to be able to use these strategies consciously so that the target audience can recover the information content without too much processing effort.

Károly (2008) also introduced the concept of *genre transfer competence* (Figure 10), by which she means “a set of linguistic and non-linguistic (sub-)competences involved in functional translation, which aid the identification, production and TL reproduction of genre characteristics” (2008: 12). She emphasises that the notion includes knowledge about the features (norms and conventions) of text types and specific genres in both the source and the target language/culture as well as the ability to transfer them between languages (employing the genre transfer strategies outlined above).

Figure 10. Genre transfer competence (Károly 2008: 13)



*Language-pair-specific generic competence* is connected to specific genres, *language-pair-specific text type competence* is related to text types (such as argumentative, descriptive, narrative), and *language-pair-specific cognitive competence* is linked to the logical/cognitive structure of texts. *Thematic (or professional) competence* refers to background knowledge in a specific domain, *tactic competence* is linked to diplomacy (which is particularly important in political discourse), and *intercultural competence* means extensive knowledge about the source and target culture (Károly 2008: 13). This model perfectly illustrates the complex nature of a translation competence, which has a number of non-linguistic components. These sub-competences are essential not only in written but also in oral mediated communication.

Translation in real-life (particularly formal) situations always operates on written or oral discourse (which belongs to one or more genre), reflecting the language use of a particular discourse community. Thus, a genre-based approach seems to be particularly useful when specialised texts are used, such as texts that have EU topics. EU texts also include EU document, the translation of which requires special knowledge not only about the EU and its institutions but also about target language norms and conventions related to EU texts. Since this knowledge is important for every educated Hungarian citizen, Károly's genre-oriented model seems to be extremely useful in any advanced-level translation course incorporated into foreign language programmes that focuses on the development of translation skills.

As Byrne (2006: 6) pointed out, advanced-level foreign language classes should focus on function and meaning (rather than form and structure). Thus, a genre-based pedagogy is particularly beneficial as it enables the development of a more critical literacy in students.

Byrne also noted that after a certain level of language proficiency, the instructed setting might be the only environment that can ensure this development (2006: 2). This remark seems to confirm the results of studies conducted in Nordic countries (Norway and Finland), which indicated that some aspects of the English language competence of Norwegian higher education students (particularly their academic reading and writing skills, see Hellekjær 2009 and Lehmann 1999) and the written grammatical (syntactic) competence of Finnish upper-secondary school students (see Meriläinen 2010) are inadequate. The researchers mention social changes, including students' increased exposure to English as a foreign language (and as a lingua franca) outside the classroom, particularly to the oral and informal varieties of English. In addition, they also blame communicative teaching methods, which focus on oral competences and are more tolerant to errors, which can result that students overestimate their overall level of language competence without being aware of the gaps in their language competence. Concerning this issue, Heltai (1995: 65) remarked that at an advanced level, well-designed, purposeful, communicative translation tasks might be more suitable than oral communicative activities as they can increase students' language awareness and accuracy as well as develop an analytical approach. Meriläinen (2010) also recognised that accuracy and awareness of the norms of formal English are essential for university-level studies. Although she does not explicitly refer to translation, it seems that functional-textual translation activities, which include a contrastive analysis of L1 and L2, can contribute to achieving these aims.

### ***2.5.1.3 Native language textual competence and the role of norms***

In direct translation (from L2 into L1), native language competence plays a central role, and when translation refers to public language use in formal situations, quality becomes important as well (Heltai 2004). According to Heltai (2004) in general prescriptive linguists tend to be dissatisfied with the quality of native language use, which seems to be a common complaint also of Hungarian teachers even at the elementary and secondary level (Fazekas 2006: 19). Still, as Heltai (2004) argued, a prescriptive approach can become overly strict and inflexible, disregarding the dynamic nature of communication. On the other hand, as he pointed out, a purely descriptive approach seems to ignore the importance of evaluation and quality, which, however, are inevitable in public and professional language use as well as in pedagogical contexts. Thus, translation courses (including those that are integrated into foreign language programmes) should explicitly focus on making students' native language use more conscious and more proper.

The level of native language competence depends on several factors (such as age, education, family background or subjective psycho-physiological factors), but translation appears to be an effective means to increase native language awareness, accuracy and appropriateness through contrastive analysis. Heltai (2005b) emphasised that translators (and translation students) should be particularly aware of the social and cultural norms and conventions in the target language (which vary according to genre and communicative situation), and they should be able to evaluate, conform to, deviate from or adjust to them (c.f. Károly 2008). In fact, Heltai (2005b: 169) claimed that translators needed a more advanced and more conscious native language communicative competence than average educated speakers of the language (particularly in the case of formal translation) since translations can strongly influence the overall quality of language use. The author of this dissertation shares this view, adding that the quality of native language use and an awareness of native language norms and conventions are equally relevant for students who learn translation as part of their foreign language studies.

According to Heltai (2004), there are several types of norms depending on the linguistic level. In addition to formal rules of language use (grammatical and spelling rules, which allow only one accepted form) and preferred uses of certain forms (norms), textual norms (or rather conventions or tendencies) play a crucial role in achieving the overall quality of the target text. Heltai (2005b: 169) listed the following important textual norms and conventions that need to be observed when translating into Hungarian:

- sentence length, the number and length of clauses, clause structure,
- the number of adjuncts below sentence level,
- the use of cohesive devices at sentence and text level, placing the focus,
- devices for expressing reference, the frequency and clarity of their use,
- the thematic structure of sentences, thematic and rhematic units,
- the number, complexity and place of adverbial clauses in the sentence,
- the use of translation strategies to handle impersonal and passive structures, active/passive replacement, addition of subject,
- the use of nominalisation and verbalisation and the application of necessary transfer strategies
- the proportion of finite and non-finite clauses, the position of modifiers, right- and left-branching structures, the use of adjectival participles in Hungarian,

- dynamic and static modes of expression,
- the use of abstract and semantically empty lexis,
- the use of collocations, the right proportion of stereotyped phrases

In translation courses integrated into foreign language programmes, it is extremely useful if these norms are discussed in detail and practiced through a variety of targeted activities.

## 2.5.2 Text selection

### 2.5.2.1 *Criteria for text selection*

Text selection is one of the key aspects of syllabus design. When selecting texts for instruction, several important factors should be taken into account, such as authenticity, length, lexical and syntactic complexity and subject matter of the text (Hatim and Mason 1997, Kelly 2005, Nord 2005). As Nord (2005) pointed out, difficulty is not an inherent quality of the text but depends also on the students' motivation, prior knowledge and level of competence. Principles of text selection were formulated primarily in professional training contexts, yet the basic ideas can be used also in textually oriented translation courses within foreign language degree programmes.

Hatim and Mason's (1997) model includes two dimensions: the degree of *evaluativeness* of the text (with descriptive and narrative texts being the least evaluative, and argumentative texts having more inherent evaluativeness) and the degree of *markedness* (unmarked texts having a more predictable intent and a more consistent register) (1997: 182). Hatim and Mason argued that less evaluative and less marked texts place fewer contextual demands on the translator, thus they are ideal for students with less translation experience. However, they also pointed out that in reality, textual values constantly fluctuate, and texts normally display features characteristic of more than one text type or keep switching from one type to another. Nevertheless, cases of marked and dynamic language use should be introduced at later stages of training. These include texts that have hybridised registers, opaque intentions, genre shifts, competing discourses, a more dynamic (expectation-defying) structure or a more marked texture (Hatim and Mason 1997: 194–195). Dealing with these texts requires a more conscious strategy use, but can make students more aware of the dynamic nature of language use, which is reflected in the fluidity of text types.

### ***2.5.2.2 The importance of EU English and EU texts for Hungarian learners of English***

Translation is a fundamental activity in the EU, which takes place on multiple levels and in several domains. According to Koskinen (2000: 57), translation in the European Commission can be divided into three main types: (1) the special case of translating *legal documents*, (2) *intracultural* translation (within the unique, ‘a-national’ culture of the EU) and (3) *intercultural* translation (between the EU and the member states, or in other words between the EU seen as a specific culture and the national cultures). Intracultural translation is further divided into *intrainstitutional* and *interinstitutional* translation, that is translation within and between EU institutions. Intercultural translation is very complex and diverse, including both *interadministrative* translation (between the Commission and national authorities, NGOs and other interest groups) and *public* translation (for the general public). Since the texts resulting from these translation processes have different functions and purposes, they require different translation strategies. In a pedagogical context, considering the communicative context of EU texts (including the target audience) is essential to be able to select the most appropriate translation strategies.

Through membership, the EU has become an integral part of Hungarian citizens’ life. Hence, understanding the history of European integration, the EU’s fundamental aims as well as its institutional structure and policies may be important not only in students’ subsequent careers but also in their personal lives. Currently the English language occupies a central position in both EU’s institutional and non-institutional communication, which means that EU English is particularly important for learners of English. The term *EU English* refers to a specialised variety of English used by the EU as a discourse community in various institutions and documents (Jablonkai 2010a, 2010b, Trebits 2008, 2009, Trebits and Fischer 2009). It is important to distinguish this term from *Euro-English* and *International English*. Euro-English refers to English used as a lingua franca among non-native EU citizens (Berns et al., 2009: 380). It is not a single variety of English, but rather several Englishes used in different areas, which are mutually understandable by both native and non-native speakers. The other term, *International English* (e.g., Modiano 2003, Seidlhofer 2001, Truchot 2002) refers to English used as a lingua franca by non-native speakers around the world. It also shows a wide variety depending on the speakers’ cultural and linguistic background. This section focuses on the relevance of EU English and EU texts for Hungarian students studying translation in an English BA programme.

European higher education institutions adapted to the gradual changes generated by European integration by reforming the structure and the content of their degree programmes.

In Hungary, it has been recognised that in addition to developing students' English language competence and increasing their cultural background knowledge, English BA courses should equip students with transferable, vocational skills, which can be utilised later in the workplace (e.g., Sárdi 2012). After the adoption of the two-tier system in European higher education – in line with the Bologna model –, the bachelor-master division was introduced in most Hungarian degree programmes, which had considerable impacts on the design of undergraduate degree programmes, including English studies.

One concrete step taken by some institutions was integrating an EU specialisation module with the new English BA programme, for example at Eötvös Loránd University (Budapest) and Eszterházy Károly College (Eger). These specialisation modules also contained translation and ESP (EU English) courses. The idea was based on the assumption that students with an English BA need skills and knowledge that can advance their career in a multilingual and multicultural Europe, but in the case of ELTE, a preliminary needs analysis study was also conducted before introducing the module. Another underlying assumption was that in their career, these students would encounter English language texts that concern topics related to the EU and/or its relationship with Hungary.

It is important to emphasise that in this dissertation the term *EU text* refers not only to legislations and formal documents dealing with important European or local issues but also a wide range of other texts which deal with EU topics but are produced outside EU institutions (such as newspaper articles). Empirical research has revealed that the variety of English used in EU documents (EU English) exhibits common features, such as standardised terminology, lexis and structural organization (e.g., Jablonkai 2010a, 2010b, Klaudy 2004b, Trebits 2008, 2009, Trebits and Fischer 2009, Tirkkonen-Condit 2001, Trosborg 1997). On the other hand, texts that are not official documents but have EU-related topics can also contain EU-specific terms or require EU-specific knowledge. Reading and discussing these texts is useful because students' can broaden their general and specialised vocabulary in English and Hungarian. In addition, the information content of these texts can help students to better understand the EU and its policies as well as to become aware of the most recent European and/or Hungarian issues related to the EU. From a language learning point of view, translating these texts develops students' translation competence as well as their foreign and native language competence, enabling them to focus on specific linguistic (especially textual) and cultural differences. Finally, EU texts (including EU documents) can sensitise students to the dynamic nature of textual conventions and the importance of the cultural context and the communicative situation in which source and target texts are embedded.



It has been suggested that texts produced in a multicultural environment, such as in the EU, are examples of hybrid texts (Schäffner and Adab 2001, Trosborg 1997). Since hybrid texts result from intercultural negotiation and compromise, they reflect the specific norms and conventions of two or more cultures. Even though these texts are not completely established in the target culture – mostly because the vocabulary, syntax or style conflicts with or contradict to the existing norms and conventions in the target language, resulting in strange or unusual language –, they can eventually become accepted if they can achieve their intended communicative purpose (Schäffner and Adab 2001: 169). Their acceptance, however, often depends on the target culture's attitude towards the political and ideological agenda of the discourse community producing the text (in this case the EU). The openness and adaptability of the target culture to cultural and linguistic influences from outside is an important factor also in translation, and has a key role in language change. In short, EU texts not only demonstrate the interplay between the norms and conventions in the source and the target language but also draw attention to the function of texts in the target culture. Besides, texts that deal with important EU topics can be highly motivating as they have direct relevance to students' personal lives and careers and promote critical thinking. With regard to critical thinking and reflection (which are part of the symbolic dimension of advanced foreign language competence), Kramsch (2011: 364) made some concrete pedagogical recommendations:

- Use communicative activities as food for reflection on the nature of language, discourse, communication and mediation.
- Pay attention to what remains unsaid, or may even be unsayable because it is politically incorrect or disturbing.
- Bring up every opportunity to show complexity and ambiguity.
- Engage the students' emotions, not just their cognition.

Analysing, discussing and translating texts dealing with sensitive and controversial EU issues (for example language policy questions, EU and national policies and ideologies or the relationship between the EU and the Member States) seem to be strongly related to Kramsch's ideas.

### 2.5.3 Assessment of students' translation performance

In pedagogical contexts, assessment undoubtedly constitutes an important part of the learning process. Assessment practices typically reflect the dominant paradigms of learning. Recently, with increasing demands for translation quality and the harmonisation of professional translator training programmes, more and more international and Hungarian studies address issues related to translation assessment, such as the nature of translation error and the criteria and methods of assessment. Most of the studies focus on the context of professional training (Angelelli and Jacobson 2009, Dróth 2011) although undergraduate translation courses have also been investigated (González Davies 2004)<sup>8</sup>. The ideas discussed in these studies are relevant also for the context of foreign language learning and teaching, and are particularly relevant for teachers of translation courses that aim to develop translation skills in a communicative way.

#### 2.5.3.1 *Types of assessment and assessment tools*

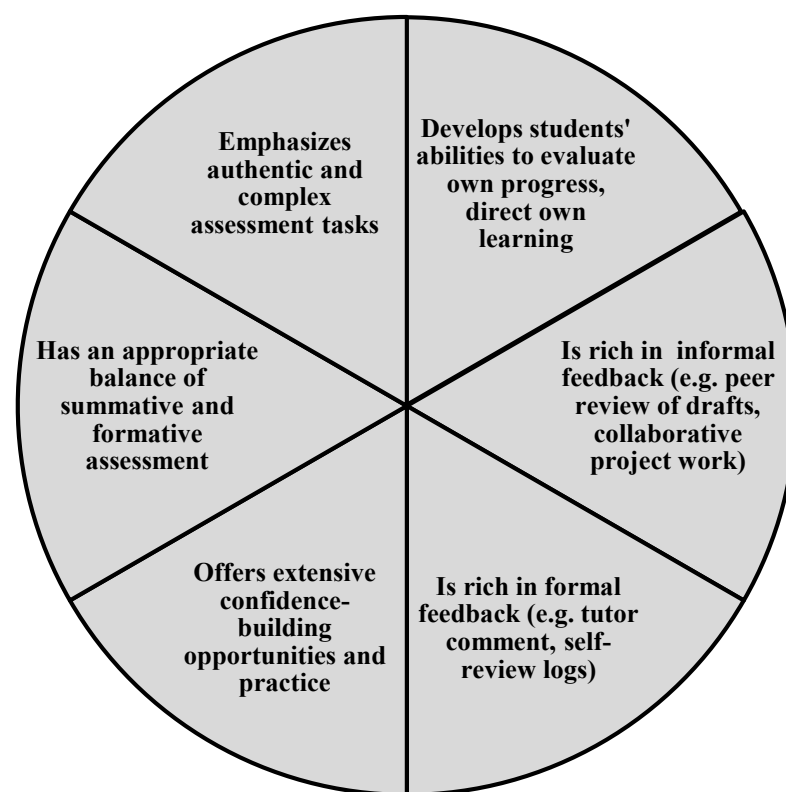
Assessment is a central concept in education, which includes identifying students' strengths and weaknesses and giving feedback, which can help them improve (formative sense of assessment) as well as assigning marks or grades to their performance on the basis of explicit criteria, which is used beyond the course/programme (summative meaning) (Sampbell, McDowell and Montgomery 2013). In the context of translation teaching, summative assessment usually takes place at the end of the learning process (a course unit, a course or a programme), typically in the form of an exam or test, and it helps determine the result (e.g., awarding a grade, a certification or a professional degree). Formative assessment, on the other hand, provides continuous feedback primarily for the learners about their strengths and weaknesses (Hatim and Mason 1997). Formative assessment not only motivates and guides students but also informs teachers about students' progress, which is an indicator of the effectiveness of teaching. Hatim and Mason (1997) emphasised that formative assessment should always take the form of continuous feedback rather than a series of examinations (or end-of-course assignments for a grade), which are essentially summative in nature. Teachers are also recommended to use a wide range of activities that develop specific aspects of translation competence, which can provide opportunities for more targeted feedback (Dróth 2001).

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<sup>8</sup> Bachelor-level translation programmes exist in several European countries, such as Finland, Germany, Italy, Spain and the UK.

Most recent models of assessment emphasise that formative assessment should not refer only to feedback but should be conceptualised more broadly. Focusing on feedback in higher educational contexts, Sampbell, McDowell and Montgomery (2013) have developed a process-based model called *Assessment for Learning* (AfL), which is based on action research. It is a holistic, learning-oriented approach, underpinned by six fundamental and interrelated principles (*Figure 11*).

*Figure 11. Assessment for Learning (Sampbell, McDowell and Montgomery 2013: 5)*



Sampbell, McDowell and Montgomery (2013) emphasise that authentic and complex assessment tasks are more likely to engage students. Furthermore, using various authentic assessment tasks encourages students to develop a more active approach to learning since students perceive these tasks as more realistic and meaningful.

In translation classes, diverse assessment is particularly important since translational activities in real-life are also assessed in different ways, depending on the purpose of the communication and on other situational factors. Sampbell, McDowell and Montgomery (2013) also pointed out the importance of using both summative and formative assessment in

a balanced way. Since translation is a process, formative assessment is crucial, but summative assessment is also essential so that the students can objectively see their achievement and level of competence (which is also related to the issue of quality).

Another important principle mentioned by the researchers is that teachers should provide diverse opportunities for practice and build students' confidence before assessing them in a summative way. It can be added that certain high-stake situations (e.g., sight-translation) should be avoided in the early stages. Instead, teachers should use more collaborative activities in which students are not as directly exposed. Nevertheless, at later stages, it is very important to practice even 'risky' situations since they can occur in real life. The researchers also emphasise the importance of diverse sources of both formal and informal feedback, including self- and peer review and reflection. Finally, the last recommendation is related to developing students' independent learning skills through tasks that require autonomy and self-evaluation (Sampbell, McDowell and Montgomery 2013: 6–7). The benefits of these principles were discussed also in the context of translation (Fischer 2011).

When assessing test performances, Hatim and Mason (1997: 200) distinguished between *norm-referenced* and *criterion-referenced assessment*, which have implications also for translation courses integrated into foreign language programmes. In norm-referenced assessment the point of reference is the performance of a specific group (e.g., professional translators), which can be very useful when the focus of the activity is on norms and real-life acceptability or when exploring the most typical problems that students face during translation (for research purposes). However, it has to be pointed out that the translations produced by professional translators are not necessarily the only acceptable versions (and not necessarily the best versions). This underlines the importance of translation teachers' qualification and/or extensive experience, which can help teachers more professionally judge the quality of translations.

In the case of criterion-referenced assessment, individual students are assessed according to objective criteria and their own abilities. Hatim and Mason (1997) underlined that the criteria should always reflect the aims of the course, and should refer to the sub-competence(s) the course aims to develop. In foreign language learning and teaching, there are available criterion-based frameworks of reference in the form of guidelines, which determine the levels of language skills. For example, in the European context, the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) describes general language competences, while the MAGICC (2013) (Multilingual and Multicultural Academic Communication Competence) framework of reference is intended for academic settings. In the USA, the most widely used

framework for assessing foreign language skills is the proficiency guidelines developed by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), the performance descriptors of which were updated in 2012. It is interesting that none of these guidelines view translation as a separate skill. Therefore, it would be imperative for foreign language experts to collaborate more with translation studies scholars.

In translation studies, there have been attempts to describe the levels of translation competence, but there are very few studies that contain objective assessment scales and descriptors for the components of translation competence. One notable exception is Domian Sánchez's (2007) functionalist, holistic and process-based model, which provides detailed descriptors for assessing the development of *communicative translation competence*. The model is based on the CEFR and ACTFL guidelines, and incorporates well-known translation competence models (such as the PACTE model 2000) as well as existing proficiency scales used by professional translator associations. The model includes five proficiency levels (*novice*, *apprentice*, *competent*, *proficient* and *expert*) and four components of translation competence, all of which have detailed descriptors: (1) *communicative language competence*, (2) *transfer competence*, (3) *strategic competence* and (4) *cultural competence* (Domian Sánchez 2007: 90–99). The model is an excellent attempt to integrate theoretical frameworks developed in foreign language learning and teaching and translation studies, and can be used as an assessment tool within foreign language learning and teaching, in translation courses that aim to develop students' translation competence from the novice to at least the competent level.

Responding to the problem of informal approaches and ad-hoc assessment scales in quality assessment in professional contexts (which often lack a solid theoretical foundation) as well as the shortcomings of existing models, Colina (2009) has developed a functionalist-componential, criterion-referenced, summative assessment tool (*Table 3*). The instrument showed high reliability in the inter-rater reliability test (by bilinguals, professional translators and language teachers) performed on various texts written in different languages. The assessment tool uses descriptors evaluating four key areas of quality separately, which are assigned equal value: (1) *target language* (relationship to target language norms), (2) *functional and textual adequacy*, (3) *non-specialised content* (meaning/relationship to the source text) and (4) *specialised content* including terminology (Colina 2009: 259–260). Although the assessment tool was developed for professional contexts, the descriptors can be used in the summative assessment of texts in specialised translation courses within foreign language programmes as well (particularly in later stages, when students are familiar with all

the concepts and terms related to translation quality), ideally combined with more analytical tools (for example indicating students' errors). The descriptors can also be used in the formative stages of assessment if complemented by learner-centred methods (e.g., self-correction, peer feedback). The model is especially well suited for assessing texts that have specialised content since this aspect appears as a separate category.

*Table 3. Descriptors in Colina's (2009) summative translation assessment tool*

| <b>TARGET LANGUAGE</b>                     |  |
|--|--|
|  | <b>Description</b>   |
|  | The translation reveals serious language proficiency issues. Ungrammatical use of the target language, spelling mistakes. The translation is written in some sort of 'third language' (neither the source nor the target). The structure of source language dominates to the extent that it cannot be considered a sample of target language text. The amount of transfer from the source cannot be justified by the purpose of the translation. The text is extremely difficult to read, bordering on being incomprehensible. |
|  | The text contains some unnecessary transfer of elements/structure from the source text. The structure of the source language shows up in the translation and affects its readability. The text is hard to comprehend.  |
|  | Although the target text is generally readable, there are problems and awkward expressions resulting, in most cases, from unnecessary transfer from the source text.   |
|  | The translated text reads similarly to texts originally written in the target language that respond to the same purpose, audience and text type as those specified for the translation in the brief. Problems/awkward expressions are minimal if existent at all.  |
| <b>FUNCTIONAL AND TEXTUAL ADEQUACY</b>     |  |
|  | <b>Description</b>   |
|  | Disregard for the goals, purpose, function and audience of the text. The text was translated without considering textual units, textual purpose, genre, need of the audience (cultural, linguistic, etc.). Cannot be repaired with revisions.  |
|  | The translated text gives some consideration to the intended purpose and audience for the translation, but misses some important aspect/s of it (e.g. level of formality, some aspect of its function, needs of the audience, cultural considerations, etc.). Repair requires effort.  |
|  | The translated text approximates to the goals, purpose (function) and needs of the intended audience, but it is not as efficient as it could be, given the restrictions and instructions for the translation. Can be repaired with suggested edits.  |
|  | The translated text accurately accomplishes the goals, purpose (function: informative, expressive, persuasive) set for the translation and intended audience (including level of formality). It also attends to cultural needs and characteristics of the audience. Minor or no edits needed.  |
| <b>NON-SPECIALIZED CONTENT – MEANING</b>   |  |
|  | <b>Description</b>   |
|  | The translation reflects or contains important unwarranted deviations from the original. It contains inaccurate renditions and/or important omissions and additions that cannot be justified by the instructions. Very defective comprehension of the original text.   |
|  | There have been some changes in meaning, omissions or/and additions that cannot be justified by the translation instructions. Translation shows some misunderstanding of original and/or translation instructions.   |
|  | Minor alterations in meaning, additions or omissions.  |
|  | The translation accurately reflects the content contained in the original, insofar as it is required by the instructions without unwarranted alterations, omissions or additions. Slight nuances and shades of meaning have been rendered adequately.  |
| <b>SPECIALIZED CONTENT AND TERMINOLOGY</b> |  |
|  | <b>Description</b>   |
|  | Reveals unawareness/ignorance of special terminology and/or insufficient knowledge of specialized content.   |
|  | Serious/frequent mistakes involving terminology and/or specialized content.  |
|  | A few terminological errors, but the specialized content is not seriously affected.  |
|  | Accurate and appropriate rendition of the terminology. It reflects a good command of terms and content specific to the subject.  |

Colina's (2009) model was recently revised and modified by Williams (2013) to make it better suited for pedagogical contexts. Williams based his model on Colina's (2009) assessment tool, incorporating Wiggins' (1998) theory of educative assessment and Biggs and Tang's (2007) principle of constructive alignment. Although he acknowledged the merits of Colina's model, he also expressed some criticism. Among other issues, he pointed out that the assessment tool did not allow teachers to determine the values of the components relative to the aims of the course or programme (the same values are used in each component). This is a very valid remark as the value of the various components depends largely on the translational situation and the aims/level of the course. The second major criticism was that the model did not consider the gravity of the error (critical/major/minor errors), which are in fact essential in quality assessment. Finally, he suggested using an additional, holistic descriptive assessment (Williams 2013: 433), which is clearly beneficial in pedagogical settings.

The model merges two categories from Colina's (2009) original model (*non-specialised content – meaning* appears as *transfer* and is combined with *functional-textual adequacy*), so altogether it assesses three aspects of quality: (1) *transfer/functional and textual adequacy*, (2) *target language* (3) and *terminology/research* which are weighted 40-40-20 respectively (Williams 2013: 435–440). Using this assessment tool flexibly, teachers can change the weightings of each component to adjust assessment to the particular translation task. Williams' (2013) model (which contains the assessment rubrics for the three components, a tally sheet with the original weighting values, and a final holistic assessment tool), adapted to the Hungarian context (using the numerical grading scale from 1–5<sup>9</sup>) is presented in *Appendix A*.

In formative assessment, self-assessment and peer assessment ideally complement teacher feedback, increasing motivation and translation skills as well as enhancing such generic transferable skills as self-awareness, sense of responsibility, autonomy and collaboration (Bergen 2009, Fischer 2011, Kelly 2005). Self-correction can allow teachers to see whether the error is related to competence, performance or interference (c.f. Heltai 2005a). If the student is able to correct his or her own mistake, it is probably only a performance error (lack of time, lack of attention or motivation) or the result of source text interference. On the other hand, if the student cannot self-correct, the teacher can assume that the problem is related to the student's translation competence.

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<sup>9</sup> The numerical grading scale is used instead of the original alphabetical scale that used five letter grades: A [A –, A & A+], B [B & B+], C [C & C+], D [D & D+], and F. To use the tables in their modified form, written permission was obtained from the author, Malcolm Williams, Associate Professor at the University of Ottawa.

Using peer feedback has been an established practice in learner-centred ESL writing courses for a long time (e.g., Bell 1991, Bruffee 1973, Hansen and Liu 2005, Hyland 2000, Min 2005), and its benefits in translation are increasingly acknowledged (e.g., Fischer 2011, Kelly 2005, Wang and Han 2013). It has been found that peer feedback not only alleviates learner anxiety and enhances confidence but also makes learners more sensitive to the target audience, which is essential in both oral and written real-life translation. In addition, evidence suggests that students who are empowered in this way benefit not only from receiving feedback from their peers but also from providing it to their peers, which activates their language skills and develop critical evaluation skills (Lindgren et al. 2009, Lundstrom–Baker 2009). According to Snowball and Mostart's (2013) findings, giving feedback was actually perceived as more useful to improve academic writing skills than getting it from peers.

In the Hungarian context, Fischer (2011) wrote an excellent summary of the benefits of learner-centred evaluation methods, and argued that self-assessment (prior to or following teacher assessment) can help improve learners' ability to judge their own level of competence, which is strongly connected to such important issues as responsibility and the quality of translation, also emphasised by Szabari (2001). The ability to objectively and effectively evaluate others' work is a crucial skill also in the workplace. Fischer (2011) suggested that peer feedback could be extremely effective if done in pairs so that students first comment on each other's translations (at home, according to explicit criteria), followed by face-to-face pair discussion and a final whole-class discussion. These methods can foster the development of important social skills, such as formulating and presenting their own opinions in a diplomatic, but constructive way, as well as receiving and responding to criticism. An interesting way of giving feedback is mentioned in some recent studies pointing out the benefits of more interaction between domestic and international students and complementing local assessment practices by innovative, cross-cultural forms of peer assessment (Arkoudis et al. 2011, Marginson and Sawir 2011). The idea seems particularly relevant (and not too difficult to organise and implement) in the case of translation classes. For example, native speakers of English (studying in Hungary or in their native countries) could give feedback on the target texts produced by Hungarian students learning translation as part of their English studies, and vice versa, Hungarian students could give feedback on texts produced by English students studying Hungarian either in Hungary or in their home countries.

Finally, there are practical research instruments that can provide essential information for the teacher about students' level of translation competence, which are particularly useful at the early stages. Orozco and Hurtado Albir (2002: 396–402) developed three useful



research tools: a questionnaire to measure students' initial notions about translation, a tool to explore their problem solution process during translation (by asking them to list all the works consulted when faced with a problem) and a post-translation questionnaire to further explore the translation process. These tools can form the basis of process-based exploratory studies in translation courses integrated into foreign language programmes as well.

### ***2.5.3.2 Types of errors and methods of error correction***

Error correction is a controversial issue in foreign language learning and teaching, but in translation teaching, particularly in written tasks, it is considered to be an essential pedagogical tool not only from the students' but also from the teacher's perspective. To evaluate students' translations, teachers can use process-based, holistic techniques (based on clear descriptors) and/or text-based analytical methods (error analysis). Dróth (2011) summarised the advantages and disadvantages of these two methods, and concluded that their combination seemed to be the best option although the aims of assessment should always determine the selection of a particular method. When using error analysis, it is recommended to use manageable and clear categories of errors. Over the past few decades, several error typologies have been proposed, which differ not only in their conceptualization of errors but also in their complexity.

In his model, Sager (1983 as cited in Hatim and Mason 1997: 202) distinguished five main types of error: inversion of meaning, omission, addition, deviation and modification. He emphasised the effect of the error, and argued that errors can appear in the linguistic, semantic or pragmatic level of language. At the syntactic level, the error can affect the main or secondary parts of the sentence, while at the semantic level it can influence either the main argument or only a supporting idea. Finally, at the pragmatic level, the impact of an error on the communicative purpose can be significant or negligible.

The linguistic level where the error appears is a crucial aspect also in Dróth's (2001) model of formative assessment. She distinguished between five levels, which are in a hierarchical relationship: the level of the communicative situation, the textual level, the syntactic level, the lexical level, and the level of surface elements. The textual level is believed to have the strongest influence on the overall quality of the text. According to Heltai (2005a), Dróth's approach is extremely useful although it puts too much emphasis on the target language production phase without clarifying how the assessment of the errors is related to the comprehension of the source text and its information content (Heltai 2005a: 43–44). Similarly, according to Martínez Melis and Hurtado Albir (2001), the seriousness of an

error can only be determined relative to its nature, and it should be evaluated in a functional way, depending on the effect of the error on the following (Martínez Melis and Hurtado Albir 2001: 282):

- The text as a whole (whether it [the error] affects a key idea or a subordinate idea),
- The coherence and cohesion of the target text,
- The degree of deviation from the sense of the original text, particularly if this deviation is likely to remain undetected by the reader of the translation,
- The functionality on a communicative level of the target text (infringement of text type conventions, etc.),
- Adverse consequences regarding the purpose of the translation (resulting in the failure to sign a contract, sell a product, etc.).

In the German context, Göpferich (2010) compiled an error classification scheme, which is similar to Dróth's (2001) system in that it also includes several linguistic levels (Göpferich 2010: 54–55):

:

- Formal errors (punctuation, spelling, formatting)
- Lexical errors (semantic errors, collocation, blending, preposition)
- Grammatical error (tense, case, number, and agreement, mode, syntax, article, modality/illocution, infinitive)
- Text-level errors (text coherence, functional sentence perspective = topic-comment structure, rhetoric = loss of communicative emphasis or effect)
- Other (idiomaticity/genre conventions, cultural specificity)

In a longitudinal study, Göpferich (2010) also investigated the development of translation competence in the case of 12 students over a period of three years. She first classified the errors that occurred in the target texts into the five categories outlined above, which were then weighted depending on the extent to which they affected the communicative function of the target text. Her results indicated that lexical errors were the most common among student translators. She thus suggests paying special attention to increasing students' awareness of semantic differences. She also emphasised that students should always be familiar with the

criteria against which their translations are assessed as it can increase their awareness during the translation process.

Another important idea concerning errors is differentiating between errors related to source text comprehension or target text production. Martínez Melis and Hurtado Albir (2001) distinguished between *functional* errors (related to the transfer process) and *absolute* errors (which are linguistic in nature), and they pointed out that since systematic, recurrent errors (actual errors) were different from random, isolated errors (mistakes), they should be treated differently (2001: 281). In the same vein, Pym (1992) distinguished between *binary* and *non-binary errors*, and argued that real translation errors are non-binary in nature. Non-binary errors indicate that the student could not select the most appropriate solution from the range of available options. These errors are often textual errors, related to norms and conventions. On the other hand, binary errors (which are mostly linguistic errors) occur when the student chooses the wrong solution instead of the only correct one. According to Pym, even though non-binary errors constitute real translation errors, which can develop students' transfer competence, translation teachers should also deal with binary errors, particularly at lower levels (Pym 1992).

Drawing on relevance theory, Heltai (2005a) distinguished between two main types of errors based on their effect. *Information (content) errors* result in a different contextual effect of the target text. These errors include changing the information in the original text as well as changing the pragmatic, textual or sociolinguistic features of the original text. Heltai also insisted that errors and their gravity could only be interpreted in a given communicative situation, thus it can happen that information errors do not affect the global comprehension of the target text. The second category he mentioned is *production errors*, which have an effect on the text recipient's information processing effort. These errors occur when producing the target text, and are related to the degree of following target language norms at various language levels. Production errors can be related to the translator's competence or performance although the source text can also cause interference, which affects target text production. *Competence errors* occur when the expected grammatical, lexical, textual or generic norms are violated due to gaps in competence or source text interference (which is quite common in the case of punctuation or collocations), while *performance errors* stem from other factors (such lack of time, distraction or source text interference), and can be corrected by the translator during the revision process. Earlier Campbell (1998) pointed out that interference errors are particularly common in inverse translation related to phraseology, for example when translating collocations. Heltai (2005a) thus suggests that students' foreign

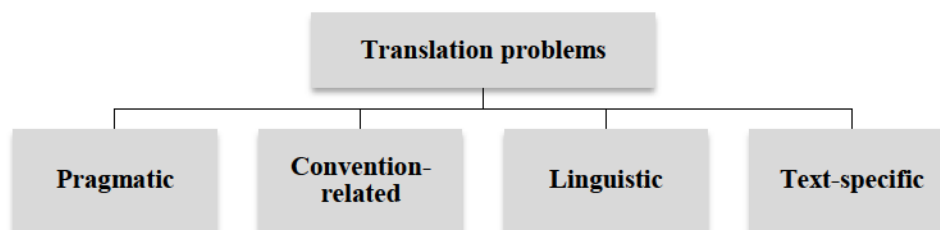
language textual competence should be developed to such a high level that it prevents mother tongue interference.

Another important distinction is between *overt errors* (obvious information or production errors, which are easy to spot, such as spelling, grammatical or lexical errors), and *covert errors* (which may remain hidden if the error is related to the information content of the source text and the reader does not have access to the original text). Covert information errors can cause misunderstanding, but again, their gravity depends on the relevance of the particular piece of information that the error is related to. According to Heltai (2005a: 51), overt production errors are typically related to word order, lexical choices, collocations or style (i.e. those types of norms that can be considered laws), while covert errors are linked to norms that represent conventional language use, and thus are harder to identify and assess.

Error correction is a key issue also in Nord's (2005) functional-textual approach. Nord (2005) also emphasised that translation errors were not absolute categories but their gravity can only be determined in relation to the communicative purpose of the text. According to her, translation errors result from unsolved or not adequately solved problems, as well as from a range of individual difficulties. She developed a taxonomy of translation errors, but at the same time, she also encouraged translation teachers to focus also on the translation process and explore students' individual difficulties. Even though Nord emphasised error correction and considerable teacher intervention particularly at the early stages, her approach is clearly a move towards more learner-centred teaching. She underlined that error correction not only served as a guide for teachers but was also a means of giving systematic feedback for students on their progress (formative assessment).

Nord (2005) pointed out that students encounter various problems and difficulties during translation. She distinguished between objective *translation problems*, which stem from the differences between the source and the target language or culture, and subjective *translation difficulties*, which vary from individual to individual. Due to various individual difficulties, students cannot solve certain translation problems or cannot solve them appropriately, which leads to translation errors. Thus, identifying students' most common translation errors and exploring their individual difficulties are important for the teacher to determine what areas need further clarification, and which skills require further development. Nord (2005) has divided objective translation problems into four types (*Figure 12*).

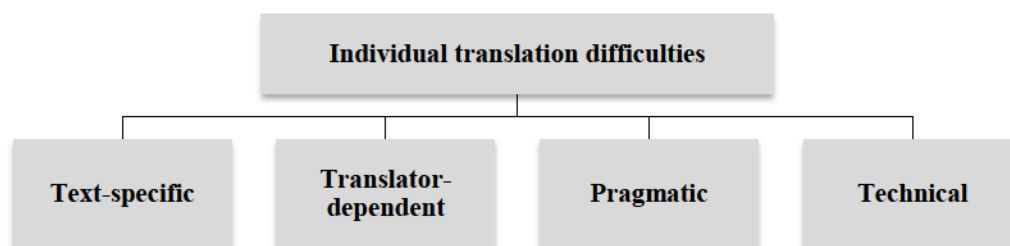
Figure 12. Students' objective translation problems (based on Nord 2005: 174–177)



*Pragmatic* translation problems arise from the communicative situations in which the source and the target text are embedded. They are independent from language and culture as well as from the direction of the translation, and can be identified by analysing the extratextual factors (see 2.4.1.1). *Convention-related* translation problems stem from the differences in conventions (i.e. norms/habits) in the specific cultures and languages involved in the translation. They include problems related to the different norms of text-production (e.g., genre conventions) or different culture-specific norms (e.g., measuring conventions, greetings). *Linguistic* translation problems result from the structural differences between the two languages, and are related mainly to lexis and sentence structure. Finally, *text-specific* translation problems stem from specific issues in the particular text that the students are dealing with (e.g., figures of speech, individual word creations) (Nord 2005: 174–175).

In addition to focusing on the product (the text), Nord's (2005) model also emphasises the translation process and the producers of the text. According to Nord, teachers can gain valuable information from exploring students' individual difficulties, which allows a deeper understanding of students' individual translation processes and the roots of their translation problems. Students' individual difficulties can be categorised as follows (*Figure 13*).

Figure 13. Students' individual translation difficulties (based on Nord 2005: 168–171)



*Text-specific* difficulties are related to the degree of comprehensibility of the particular source text, while *translator-dependent* difficulties stem from the level of students' knowledge and skills. *Pragmatic* difficulties are linked to the nature of the translation task and to the clarity

of the instruction, and finally, *technical* difficulties arise from the working conditions, including the available research and documentation tools and other texts (e.g. official translation, parallel texts).

#### 2.5.4 Effective teaching methods

The methods and techniques used at the various stages of teaching also have a key role in developing students' translation competence and performance. The activities can have pedagogical (for example to develop study skills or social skills) and/or professional goals (to develop translation skills). Several authors recommend the combination of different activities focusing on various aspects of translation, including both the product and the process (e.g., Bergen 2009, González Davies 2004, Kelly 2005, Nord 2005). González Davies's (2004) methodological framework is based on a transformational view of learning. She borrowed principles and ideas from multiple pedagogies, such as Humanistic Teaching, the Communicative Approach, Cooperative Learning and Social Constructivism. She listed a range of in-class and out-of-class activities with the ultimate pedagogic goal of achieving learner autonomy and responsibility along with promoting student collaboration. According to González Davies (2004), "the aim of the teaching and learning process is to encourage intersubjective communication in a positive atmosphere, mainly through team work, to acquire linguistic, encyclopedic, transfer and professional competence and to learn to learn about translation" (2004: 13–14). She mentioned five main approaches to translation teaching, which can be adopted depending on the main goal of the specific activity or used in combination:

- The *linguistics-based approach* based on the comparison and contrast of languages, on text types, pragmatics, semiotics, semantics, morphosyntax, that is, mainly text and language centred.
- The *cultural studies approach* where the students are made aware of the hidden agendas in texts, and analyse and translate according to these, discussing mainly the procedures used by authors and translators to reveal covert or overt intentions and what the translator's reactions and actions should be accordingly. Relaying or challenging ideologies is the crucial issue here
- The *cognitive approach* in which the emphasis lies on the application of translation solutions – sometimes called strategies or procedures – to specific problems, on the

discussion about what goes on in the translator's mind and on exploring what lies behind translation competence. Transference skills are the main area of study and practice.

- The *functionalist approach* where the emphasis lies on the translation assignment and its initiator, whether a client, an author or the translator him/herself. Here, the target text is more central than the source text and its author, and the transformations necessary to comply with the initiator's requests are the key issue around which classroom discussions revolve.
- The *philosophical and poetic approach* where the emphasis is on literary translation and discussions around hermeneutics, that is, on trying to understand the meaning of meaning, to grasp the spirit or truth believed to underlie all texts. (González Davies, 2004: 14–15)

These approaches influence not only the selection of texts but the types of activities as well. González Davies (2004) suggested using a wide range of collaborative *activities*, *tasks* and *projects* at various stages. *Activities* refer to short exercises related to particular elements of translation competence and/or specific aspects of translation. For example, the main focus could be source text analysis, text comprehension, actual translation problems and translation strategies (including compulsory and optional grammatical and lexical transfer operations), specialised vocabulary, cohesion, the use of resources, revision (self or peer revision), EU related background knowledge or the analysis of authentic target texts with special attention to linguistic and cultural norms. *Tasks* are understood as a chain of activities performed in several stages with one common goal. For example, the pre-translation source text analysis (emphasised by Nord 2005) can be performed first individually, which could be followed by pair, group or whole-class discussion. Finally, *projects* include longer, collaborative, real-life or pedagogical (realistic) assignments that activate a range of competences and result in a final product. Projects are typical in professional training but they can be extremely motivating also for foreign language learners. González Davies (2004) also emphasised progression, which means that the activities should be aligned with the different stages of learning. Similarly, Kelly (2005) pointed out that translation teachers should adopt an experiential teaching style, encouraging active engagement in realistic activities, promoting independence and collaboration, and providing continuous, constructive feedback. Creating a challenging but supportive learning environment can increase learners' motivation and

contribute to the development of students' translation, communicative and intercultural competence.

### **2.5.5 The role of needs analysis in the design and development of the syllabus of translation courses**

From the perspective of syllabus design and development, researchers emphasise the benefits of a preliminary analysis focusing on current employment practices in the language services sector as well as on institutional policies and constraints, disciplinary considerations, social needs, professional norms and the characteristics of students (e.g., Kearns 2006, Kelly 2005). These aspects are also essential in the case of translation courses integrated into foreign language, particularly because the main aims and the learners' individual characteristics (such as their needs, perceptions, expectations and level of language proficiency) are different from those in professional training. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) argued that needs analysis should be the very first stage in the design of every language-related course. In a translation course, it can help teachers in deciding which elements of translation competence the course/programme should focus on at various stages, and how the acquisition of translation and language competence can be facilitated, taking into account individual differences. The role of individual differences in translation has been investigated only in a few studies (e.g., Hubscher-Davidson 2009, Jääskeläinen 1999). Even though several studies highlight the importance of addressing learner needs both in foreign language and translation courses (e.g., Dudley-Evans and St. John 1998, Kelly 2005, Li 2000, 2001), there is very little empirical research focusing on the needs and expectations of novice translation students who study translation integrated into foreign language programmes.

The terms *needs assessment* and *needs analysis* are often used interchangeably although some authors use the former to refer only to identifying and prioritizing needs, while the latter also includes investigating the causes of and possible responses to these needs (Kaufman 1985: 21). Needs can be categorised based on what they are linked to. For example, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) distinguished *target needs* (connected to the target situation, for example functioning effectively in the workplace) from *learning needs* (connected to learning). Target needs include *necessities* (what learners must know in order to function effectively), *lacks* (what they should know but they do not) and *wants* (what they perceive as necessary to know). Distinction is also made between *objective* and *subjective* needs (Brindley 1989: 65), which can also be referred to as *perceived* and *felt* needs (Berwick 1989:



55). Objective or perceived needs are determined by outsiders, whereas subjective or felt needs are related to the individual, and are influenced by cognitive and affective factors. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) mention three key dimensions of needs analysis: *target situation analysis* (focusing on objective needs), *learning situation analysis* (investigating subjective needs) and *present situation analysis* (exploring what learners already know). Finally, a fourth aspect is also useful to consider, which was first suggested by Holliday and Cooke (1982). This is referred to as *means analysis*, focusing on contextual constraints (e.g., classroom culture, management, and infrastructure). Expanding previous models, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 125) proposed a holistic model, which includes the following aspects of a comprehensive needs analysis:

- A. professional information about the learners: the tasks and activities learners are/will be using English for – *target situation analysis* and *objective needs*
- B. personal information about the learners: factors which may affect the way they learn such as previous learning experiences, cultural information, reasons for attending the course and expectations of it, attitude to English – *wants, means, subjective needs*
- C. English language information about the learners: what their current skills and language use are – *present situation analysis* – which allows us to assess (D),
- D. the learners' lacks: the gap between (C) and (A) – *lacks*
- E. language learning information: effective ways of learning the skills and language in (D) – *learning needs*
- F. professional communication information about (A): knowledge of how language and skills are used in the target situation – *linguistic analysis, discourse analysis, genre analysis*
- G. what is wanted from the course
- H. information about the environment in which the course will be run – *means analysis*

In the empirical research reported in this dissertation, Research Study 1 is an explicit needs analysis study based on this framework, but the other empirical studies also include some of the aspects mentioned in this model.

### **3. CONTEXTUAL BACKGROUND: TRANSLATION IN THE ENGLISH BACHELOR'S PROGRAMME IN HUNGARY**

The empirical research carried out as part of this dissertation has an *instrumental case study* design, which means that exploring the case in its natural context is used as a strategic tool to provide deeper understanding of the central phenomenon (Verschuren 2003). The empirical research focuses on translation courses integrated into the EU specialisation module within the English BA programme in a particular Hungarian higher education institution. The empirical research consists of five individual studies, which explore the phenomenon from different perspectives. More specifically, the studies investigate Hungarian EFL learners' preliminary needs and perceptions, their post-graduation work experiences with regard to translation and the use of EU-texts, as well as their translational text production. In addition, the studies also aim to find out about the instructional methods and views of teachers teaching translation courses at the bachelor's level, along with their experiences related to teaching translation. Before presenting the aims and methods of the individual research studies and discussing their results in detail in Chapter 4, this chapter aims to provide the contextual background to the research. Since contextual conditions have a direct bearing on the studied phenomenon, the context in which an educational programme is embedded has a central role in educational research, particularly when adopting a case study design (Smeyers and Depaepe 2013, Timmons and Cairns 2010).

The chapter is divided into two main sections. The first one introduces the wider educational context of the phenomenon selected for study, describing the recent structural changes in the Hungarian education system and as examining its repercussions on the design of the reformed three-year English BA programmes. The second section focuses on the local institutional context of the particular educational programme where the empirical research was conducted.

#### **3.1 The English BA programme in Hungarian higher education after the Bologna reform – the role of translation and English for EU purposes**

Hungary joined the European Union in 2004, which resulted in massive changes with far-reaching repercussions in almost every field including education. After the adoption of the two-tier system in Hungarian higher education in 2007 – in accordance with the Bologna

model –, the bachelor-master division was introduced in most degree programmes, including foreign language studies. Higher education institutions had to adapt to the gradual changes in generated by European integration also by reforming the content of their degree programmes. Partly resulting from structural changes and the new demands of the labour market, teaching as a profession became less popular, while more and more students showed an interest in studying translation and interpretation. Another important factor to consider was that some students majoring in foreign languages (including English) did not wish to continue their studies on the master's level, but rather intended to find employment after receiving their bachelor's degree. However, students in the new three-year undergraduate degree in English no longer received a teacher qualification automatically (as was previously the case in the four-year programme), and neither did it provide them with professional translator qualification, they could obtain these qualifications only by completing a master's degree. Therefore, in addition to developing students' English language competence and increasing their culture-specific knowledge, reformed English bachelor's programmes aimed to equip students with relevant skills that will ensure their success on the job market in case they did not wish to study further.

To achieve this aim, one concrete solution was to integrate specialisation modules into the curriculum, focusing on skills and knowledge that were considered useful on the labour market, such as English for Specific Purposes (particularly EU and business English), intercultural communication or (specialised) translation. Translation courses at this level are fundamentally different from professional translator training courses, which require a very high level of language competence and prepare students for a professional career by focusing mainly on developing other key elements of translation competence. The aim of translation courses integrated into foreign language programmes is twofold: on the one hand, students acquire skills that they can further develop in their subsequent studies if they wish to continue their studies in postgraduate professional translator training programmes, and on the other hand, students who want to enter the workforce become equipped with practical and transferable skills and knowledge.

The 15/2006 government decree, issued by the Ministry of Education in 2006, specified the learning outcomes and the aims of bachelor's programmes in English and American studies. According to this document, the aim of the programme is to train *experts* [emphasis added] with extensive theoretical and practical knowledge in the field of English studies as well as in general areas of social sciences, enabling them to pursue their *profession* [emphasis added] in theory or in practice in a versatile, inter- and multidisciplinary way.

Graduates also acquire the theoretical knowledge necessary to continue their studies in the next level. The BA degree (among other things) makes them able to use the English language in written and oral contexts at a level equivalent to an advanced level language exam (type C) as well as to translate general texts at an *elementary* level (although the document does not specify what is meant by elementary translation). As Sárdi (2012) pointed out, the terms *experts* and *profession* are used in the document although it is unclear what kind of experts and profession it refers to (considering that the BA degree does not qualify students to teach or translate professionally). Furthermore, the document does not mention the translation of specialised texts, which, however, are highly relevant in today's context (particularly texts dealing with EU topics). On the other hand, the document states that graduates will be qualified to work as language organisers and language/cultural mediators at various public and non-governmental organizations. However, the work of language and cultural mediators often involves public language use in formal situations, where the issue of quality becomes important. Thus, explicit training to develop students' *translation competence* in the professional sense through a wide range of activities (focusing on every level of both the foreign and the native language, particularly the level of discourse and pragmatics, as well as on other elements of translation competence, such as general and field-specific background knowledge, the use of tools and resources or the use of translation strategies) can be an extremely useful part of every foreign language bachelor's programme.

Several Hungarian higher education institutions have integrated translation into their English BA programmes, typically in the form of a specialisation module. Some examples of these modules (as of 2014) are *Business English and Translation* at the University of Debrecen and at Kodolányi János College, Székesfehérvár, *Translation and English for Specific Purposes* at Károli Gáspár University, Budapest, *Foreign Language Economic Manager* (including translation) at the College of Nyíregyháza, *Literary Translation* at Pázmány Péter Catholic University, *English Translation Studies* at the University of Pécs, *International Professional Communication* (including translation) at Pannon University, Veszprém, or *Translation – Interpretation* at the University of Szeged.

Since Hungary's accession to the EU, specialised EU translation courses have also become increasingly popular. As Klaudy (2004a) pointed out, because of the country's EU accession, teaching language mediation skills and using EU-texts (in a broad sense) should become an integral part of foreign language education at the tertiary level. In response to the changing needs and expectations, several universities and colleges now offer postgraduate specialist translation courses in EU translation or interpretation (e.g., Eötvös Loránd

University in Budapest, the University of Debrecen and Kodolányi János College in Székesfehérvár), but EU translation has appeared even at lower levels, integrated into the three-year English bachelor's programme as well. For example, in the English BA programme at Eötvös Loránd University, there is a specialisation module called *English in the EU*, which also includes courses focusing on EU English and the translation of EU texts. Similarly, within the English BA at Eszterházy Károly College, the institution under study in this dissertation, there is a 50-credit *English for EU purposes* specialisation module that also includes specialised translation.

### **3.2 Institutional background: the English Bachelor's programme in Eszterházy Károly College**

Eszterházy Károly College in Eger is a regional educational centre with a long history of foreign language education. The Department of English was established in 1970, and after the Bologna reforms in 2006, the new BA in English Studies started in the academic year 2007/2008. As part of the reformed BA programme (without teaching qualification), an elective, 50-credit EU specialisation module is offered, which the students can choose at the end of the first year. This four-semester specialisation module starts in the second year, and consists of the following five subjects: two *Rhetoric and Stylistics* seminars, three *Communication Skills* seminars, six *English for EU Purposes* courses (five seminars covering a wide range of issues related to the EU, including its institutional structure and various policy areas, such as social policy, regional policy, economy, language and cultural policy and translation, and a lecture giving a historical overview of European integration with the aim of providing the necessary background knowledge to understand EU-related issues). The courses *Theory and Practice of Specialised Translation* start in the second semester, and include three lectures focusing on theoretical issues related to translation in general and in the context of the EU. The lectures are complemented by three seminars providing practice in translating general as well as specialised texts with EU topics. The lectures and seminars run parallel and are designed to complement each other. The declared aim of the specialised translation courses is to develop students' language and translation competence and to equip them with the skills, abilities and knowledge necessary to produce functionally adequate target texts.

This specialisation is one of the few EU specialisation modules in Hungary that are built into the English BA programme. At the time of the research, there were only two higher

education institutions in Hungary offering translation courses as part of the EU specialisation module within the English BA programme: Eötvös Loránd University (ELTE) in Budapest, and Eszterházy Károly College (EKF) in Eger. Selecting the BA programme at EKF for the case study can be further explained by the following factors: at the start of the research (in 2009) I had been working at the Department of English Studies at EKF for eight years, actively participating in the design and development of the new translation and ESP (EU) courses within the EU specialisation module. Furthermore, I was teaching the translation seminars and some of the English for EU purposes courses. Due to my personal involvement, selecting this programme for the empirical research not only brought an experienced insider's perspective to the whole phenomenon and data analysis but also facilitated the data collection process itself by offering easier access to participants and data. Throughout the research process, I took it into consideration that my personal involvement and subjective pedagogical views might distort objectivity. Using multiple methods and perspectives aimed to reduce this risk. However, since a number of outside factors influenced the design and implementation of the empirical research, sometimes I had to diverge from the optimum methodology.

## 4. EMPIRICAL RESEARCH DESIGN

### 4.1 Research questions

The empirical research reported in this dissertation has an *instrumental case study* research design (Grandy 2010, Stake 1995, Verschuren 2003), which means that the case is used as a strategic instrument to study a wider phenomenon (translation in advanced foreign language learning and teaching). There are two central questions guiding the research (including the primary and secondary research), which are elaborated into specific research questions in each empirical study. The two central questions are:

- (1) What are the roles of translation and EU texts in learning and teaching English as a foreign language at the tertiary level?
- (2) How can translation be effectively integrated into the English bachelor's degree programme in Hungary?

The five studies address these questions from the perspective of the language learners and the teachers, but each study is related to the wider dimensions of course design and syllabus development. The relationship between the research questions and the research studies addressing each question is illustrated in *Table 4*.

Table 4. Research questions addressed in the empirical studies

| MAIN RESEARCH QUESTIONS  | RESEARCH STUDY ADDRESSING THE RESEARCH QUESTION  |
|--|--|
| <b>WIDER ASPECTS OF COURSE DESIGN AND SYLLABUS DEVELOPMENT</b>   |  |
| (1) What are the main factors that teachers and course developers should consider in the course design and syllabus development of specialised EU translation courses within the English BA programme? | Research study 1–5   |
| <b>PERSPECTIVE OF THE LANGUAGE LEARNERS</b>  |  |
| (2) What are the initial assumptions of English BA students about translation as an activity and a skill?  | Research study 1: needs analysis survey  |
| (3) What are the needs and expectations of English BA students regarding an EU translation course prior to the course?   |  |
| (4) What characterises Hungarian English BA students' translational text production (recurring errors and individual difficulties)?  | Research study 2 and 3: students' translation performance                                  |
| (5) What are students' post-graduation experiences with regard to translation and language mediation at the workplace?   | Research study 4: graduate survey  |
| (6) What are graduates' views on the relevance of the translation and EU courses in light of their subsequent work experiences?  |  |
| <b>PERSPECTIVE OF THE TEACHERS</b>   |  |
| (7) What are the course teachers' experiences and views concerning the level, needs, and expectations of the students choosing the EU specialisation module within the English BA programme?           | Research study 1 and 5: needs analysis survey, and survey of teachers' practices and views |
| (8) What are the course teacher's assumptions about the development of these students' translation and language competence?  | Research study 5: survey of teachers' practices and views                                  |
| (9) What are the course teachers' teaching methods in the context of translation teaching in the English BA programme?   |  |

## 4.3 Research aims and methodology

### 4.3.1 Research study 1: Students' initial perceptions, needs, and expectations

The main aim of the mixed-methods study was to explore a group of novice translation students' perceptions, needs and expectations regarding an EU translation course and to capture their views about translation as an activity, translation competence, and the role of specialised translation in improving their foreign language competence. The participants were ten full-time, first-year students, who opted for the EU specialisation module within the English BA programme. Data was collected through a questionnaire survey, developed on the basis on Dudley-Evans and St. John's (1998) model of needs analysis. After analysing the survey data, the students' responses were also compared with the teacher's assumptions



collected through a semi-structured interview. Finally, in a document analysis the existing syllabi of the specialised translation courses (both the lecture and the seminar) were analysed to see the relationship between the stated aims and content of the course, the individual needs of the students and the teacher's views.

#### **4.3.2 Research study 2: Students' translation performance (I.)**

The exploratory research study aimed to investigate students' translation performance when translating a particular EU text (the answer for a written parliamentary question). The participants were ten full-time, third-year students enrolled in the second translation seminar within the EU specialisation module. The study first compared students' translations to the official translation of the text in order to identify and analyse recurring patterns of linguistic errors in the student translations at the level of lexis, syntax and the text (including only the degree of formality, reference and cohesion). To complement the textual analysis, retrospective interviews were conducted to see what elements of translation competence the most typical errors are linked to. The analysis was based on Klaudy's (1994b) taxonomy of transfer operations, Dróth's (2001) model of translation assessment as well as on the PACTE (2011) model of translation competence.

#### **4.3.3 Research study 3: Students' translation performance (II.)**

The main aim of the research study was to identify and analyse various translation problems that a group of students face when attempting to translate three different English texts that have EU topics (a written parliamentary question, a Commission press release, and a news report). The participants were twelve full-time, third-year students enrolled in the second EU-translation seminar in the specialisation module. After a pre-translation source text analysis (which was part of the translation task), the textual analysis of the student translations identified the most typical translation problems in the student translations which led to translation errors. The analysis was complemented by semi-structured interviews conducted with the students to explore their individual difficulties during translation. The data analyses were based on Nord's (2005) framework of translation-oriented source text analysis and her categories of translation problems and individual difficulties.

#### **4.3.4 Research study 4: Graduates' work experiences and views**

The questionnaire study was targeted at those graduates of the English BA programme who had already completed the EU specialisation module. The research aimed to find out about

graduates' further educational choices and their employment experiences regarding translation and the use of EU texts. The survey also sought to capture graduates' perceptions of the EU English specialisation module within the English BA programme, including the EU English and the EU translation courses. Altogether 79 graduates completed and returned the online questionnaire, which contained both open-ended and closed questions. Numerical data was analysed with descriptive statistical methods (calculating frequencies, percentages and means), while in the analysis of the narrative data, qualitative content analysis was used to identify major themes and categories which emerged from the responses.

#### **4.3.5 Research study 5: Teachers' instructional practices and views**

The main aim of this survey was to explore teachers' teaching methods, experiences and views regarding translation in the EU specialisation module integrated into the English BA programme. The questionnaire survey was targeted at teachers teaching translation courses in EU specialisation modules within the English BA in Hungary. Altogether three teachers returned the questionnaire from the two institutions where such a module was offered (Eszterházy Károly College and Eötvös Loránd University). Questions related to teaching methods included the types of tasks and activities used, the genre and topic of the texts, the criteria for text selection, the use of EU texts, the use of Hungarian texts, and methods of assessment (including error correction practices). The research also set out to explore teachers' experiences regarding language learners' most typical problems and difficulties at the beginning of the translation courses and their most common translation errors. Finally, the survey also investigated teachers' views on the importance of exploring and analysing students' needs and expectations prior to the course, the role of foreign and native language competence in translation, and the relevance of translation within the English BA programme.

## 5. RESULTS OF THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH STUDIES

### 5.1 Research study 1: Exploring students' initial perceptions, needs, and expectations<sup>10</sup>

#### 5.1.1 Research aims

The main objective of this needs analysis study is to explore, in the Hungarian context, undergraduate English BA students' perceptions, needs and expectations concerning an EU specialised translation course, and to capture their perceptions about translation as an activity, translation competence and the role of specialised translation in improving their foreign language competence. The responses are then compared with their teacher's assumptions and the existing course syllabus to find out how the stated aims and content of the course and the individual needs of the students are related. The study addresses the following research questions:

- (1) What are the immediate needs and expectations of a particular group of English BA students regarding an EU translation course prior to the course?
- (2) What are the students' initial perceptions about translation as an activity?
- (3) What are the students' preliminary assumptions about translation competence?
- (4) What are the students' perceptions about the role of EU translation in the development of their English language competence?
- (5) What are the teacher's beliefs about the needs and expectations of these students?
- (6) What are the teacher's assumptions about the development of these students' translation competence?
- (7) Do the aims and contents of the course, and the teaching approaches and methods adopted by the teacher match the students' level and needs?

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<sup>10</sup> This section is a slightly modified version of an article published in the Hungarian electronic journal *Working Papers in Language Pedagogy (WoPaLP)*. Full bibliographical reference: Károly A. 2011. Exploring learners' needs and expectations: the role of translating EU texts in English undergraduate programmes. *Working Papers in Language Pedagogy* Vol. 5. 58–85.

## 5.1.2 Methods

### 5.1.2.1 *Participants and setting*

The study was conducted at the Department of English Studies at Eszterházy Károly College, Eger, Hungary, in April–May 2010. The participants were ten full-time, first-year Hungarian students, who had not taken any translation course before, and who opted for the EU specialisation module starting in the following semester. Novice students were chosen because the study aimed to explore students' needs prior to the course in order to adapt the existing syllabus to the needs and level of this particular group of students. The students had very little or no previous translation experience, and their average English language competence was expected to be at level B2.

The teacher involved in the study was the teacher of the parallel specialised translation lectures, who holds a PhD in Translation Studies, and at the time of the study he had 17 years of teaching experience. He had taught the EU specialised translation lectures since 2007, both in the full-time and part-time programmes.

### 5.1.2.2 *Instruments of data collection and methods of analysis*

The study used three different methods to obtain data. In order to explore the students' needs, expectations and perceptions, a questionnaire survey was conducted. The questionnaire consisted of twenty open-ended and closed questions, altogether twenty items. The questions belonged to four main categories: personal background information, information about foreign language competence, information regarding translation, and information related to course content and methodology. Earlier versions of the questionnaire were piloted before conducting the survey with the final version. The language of the questionnaire was Hungarian, which enabled students to express their ideas more naturally. The English translation of the questionnaire can be found in *Appendix B*.

Following the questionnaire survey, a semi-structured interview was conducted with the teacher responsible for the specialised translation lectures. The assumptions of the teacher were then compared with the students' answers. The interview, which lasted about 30 minutes, was conducted in Hungarian. The English translation of the interview questions can be found in *Appendix C*. In the analysis of the questionnaire and interview data, recurrent themes emerging from the responses were identified and categorised.

Finally, in order to compare the collected data with the aims of the translation courses, document analysis was carried out, in which the existing syllabi of the specialised translation

courses (both the lecture and the seminar) were analysed, along with two coursebooks. The first book was Klaudy and Bart's (2003) *EU Fordítóiskola [Translating EU texts from English into Hungarian]*, which is written in Hungarian, and the second one was *EU English: Using English in EU Context*, written in English by Trebits and Fischer (2009).

### 5.1.3 Results and discussion

In this section, the results of the questionnaire survey, the interview and the document analysis of the course syllabi are presented with a detailed discussion of the findings.

#### 5.1.3.1 Student questionnaires

##### 5.1.3.1.1 Personal background information about the students

The first part of the questionnaire consisted of questions gathering information about the students' personal background. The group was relatively homogeneous as the students' age ranged from 18 to 21. Regarding their English language learning experience, eight of them had been learning English for ten years or more, and only two of them had been learning it for less than ten years (five and six years). This information seems to correspond with the official level of their language proficiency (nine out of ten had at least a B2 level language exam).

The main reason given for choosing the EU specialisation module was a general interest in translation and the EU. These responses show that most of the students were motivated before starting the course. Regarding their intention to continue their studies in a translation MA, all ten students gave a positive answer. Although these are only initial plans, the interest in further translation-related studies underlines the importance of translation courses at the BA level, which could provide a solid foundation for those who wish to continue their studies in translator training programmes. To justify their answers, five out of the ten students indicated that they would like to become professional translators, three expressed a general interest in translation, and two wanted to achieve higher proficiency in English. Since most of them had long-term plans related to translation, this might have a positive impact on their overall motivation in the translation course.

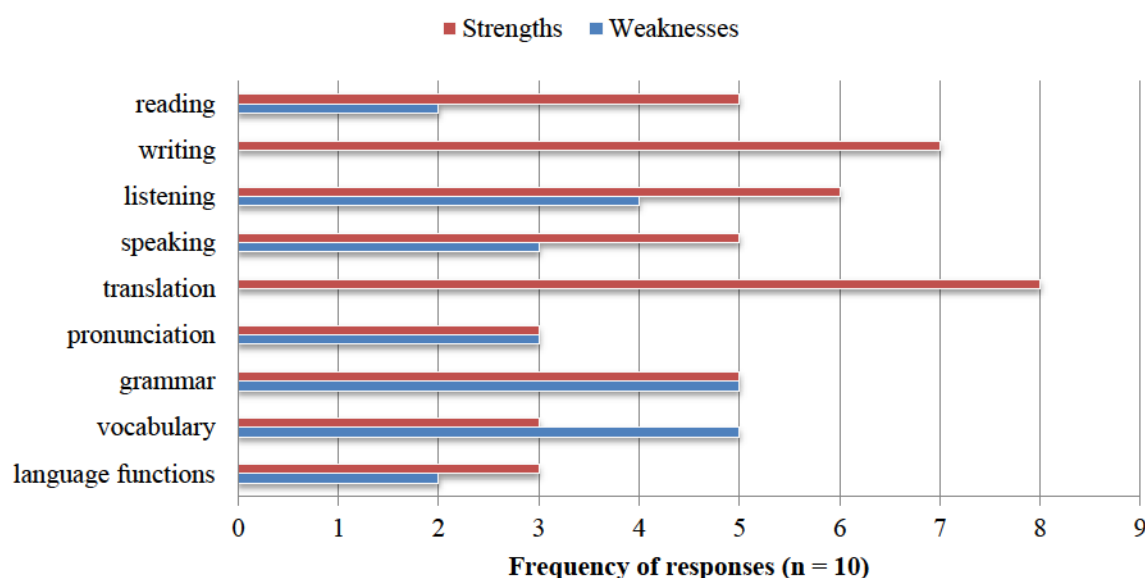
##### 5.1.3.1.2 Information about the students' English language competence

The students' level of English language competence prior to the course was B2 or higher (seven students had a B2 level language exam, two of them had one at the C1 level, and one student had no formal language certificate). However, when asked about how they assessed

their own language competence – using the descriptions in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) by the Council of Europe (2001) –, six students indicated that they were at the C1 level, three of them marked the B2 level, and the student without a language exam certificate marked the B1 level. The perceived levels of competence are in fact higher than the average level of first-year Hungarian BA students, and higher than the required entry level for the course (B2). The reason why the students tend to overestimate their language competence might be that they do not know exactly which CEFR level their language certificate corresponds to, and the descriptions of the levels given in the questionnaire might not have been sufficient for them to objectively assess themselves. Based on the author's experience, second-year students who start the translation course are somewhere around the B2 level, but there is a great variation in the level of their macro skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) as well as in the areas of language knowledge (pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and language functions).

Concerning their strengths and weaknesses (related to individual language skills and areas of language knowledge), the students' responses varied considerably (*Table 5*).

*Table 5. The students' own assessment of their strengths and weaknesses*



The responses indicate that the students feel confident in several areas. On average, they seem to be more confident about the four macro skills, and feel they need more practice with such language areas as grammar and vocabulary. The most striking finding is that eight students felt that their translation skills were strong, and nobody indicated that it was a skill to develop. This suggests that students without translation experience might have a simplistic view about

translation as an activity although the students' responses may have been distorted by the fact that the survey was related to a translation course. The students may have tried to make a good impression, or they were not aware of the complexity of translation as an activity. This is what González Davis (2004: 40) refers to as the unconscious incompetence stage, when the translation activity seems to be easy, and students are not yet aware of the challenges and problems. Thus, it seems to be useful (both for the teacher and the students) to do a trial translation at the start of the course (using a short and easier text so that the task is not frustrating or demotivating) to see how the students' own evaluation of their translation skills corresponds to their actual translation performance.

#### *5.1.3.1.3 Information about translation*

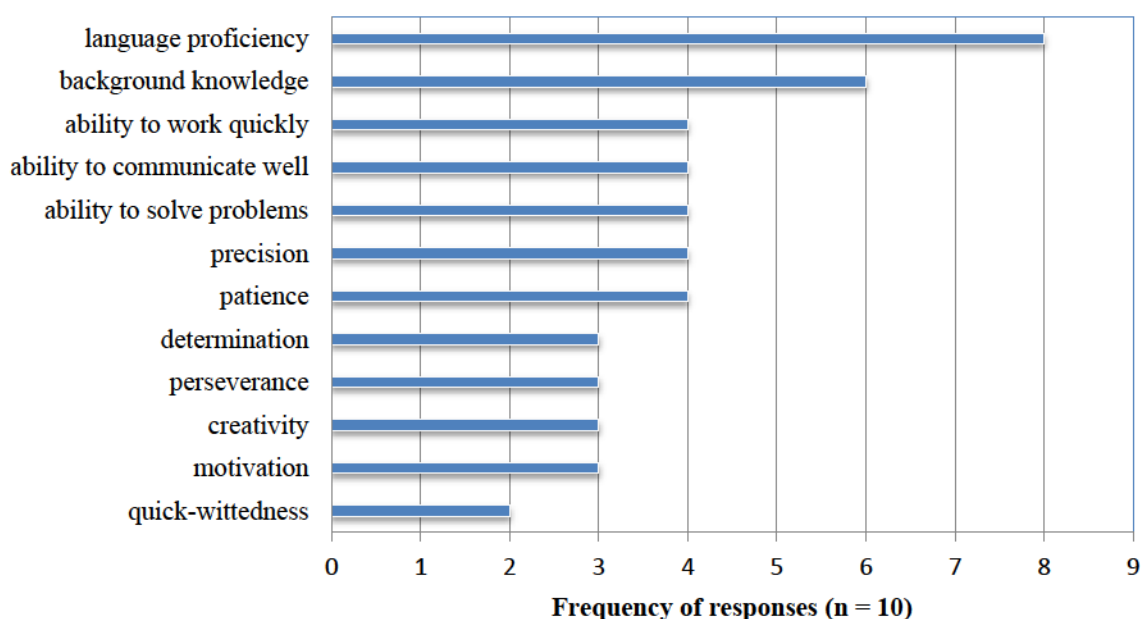
The responses suggest that students had varying degrees of translation experience. Only two students had some degree of more formal translation experience, such as translating film subtitles, software or various texts for non-profit organisations. Seven students indicated that they had some experience, but this meant mostly simple and informal translation tasks, such as translating song lyrics, parts of a film or book mostly for friends (five students), and doing translation exercises in class (school translation) or when preparing for a language exam (three students).

Regarding the difficulty of translation in general (on a scale from 1 to 4, from easy to difficult), eight students rated it 3 and two of them 2. These responses may seem surprising at first, particularly in light of the students' own evaluation of their translation skills. Although these two questions were related, this one intended to elicit the students' opinion about translation as an activity (performance) rather than a competence. The differences in the responses suggest that in the students' opinion, translation requires more than just translation skills in the narrow sense (i.e., transfer skills), which is confirmed by the responses given as justifications for the ratings. Four students mentioned that lexical items could pose serious problems, particularly if a given term does not have an equivalent in Hungarian. Three of them indicated the differences in sentence structure in English and in Hungarian. Some of the other factors mentioned were the difficulty of maintaining attention (two students), the importance of experience (three students) and differences between various text types in English and in Hungarian (one student). Interestingly, the two students who indicated 2 on the rating scale thought that a good dictionary was the most important tool to prepare a good translation.

The next question intended to further explore students' perceptions, with the students having to indicate the most difficult aspects of translation. Responses suggest that for the majority of the students, the most difficult part is translating lexical items, including terms (mentioned by eight students), which is followed by cultural and professional background knowledge (four students) and preserving formality (three students). One student mentioned the difficulty of translating lexical items without a Hungarian equivalent. It is surprising that only two students mentioned sentence structure although in my experience this is one of the most problematic areas for students, particularly when translating formal documents that contain complex sentence structures.

The next item was an open-ended question exploring students' ideas about the characteristic features of a good translator (*Table 6*). The majority of the respondents felt that being proficient in the target language was essential, and more than half of them mentioned the importance of background knowledge. Four students emphasised the ability to work quickly, the ability to communicate well in the target language, and the ability to solve problems. A number of personal qualities were also listed, such as precision, patience, determination, perseverance, creativity, motivation and quick-wittedness. The responses imply that although the students emphasise linguistic aspects of translation, they are aware that success in translation also depends on a wide range of individual, non-language factors.

*Table 6. Students' perceptions about the characteristics of a good translator*





With regard to the tools of translation, all ten students highlighted the importance of a good dictionary – seven of them explicitly mentioned bilingual dictionaries, and five of them felt that a monolingual dictionary was also essential. Students also indicated the importance of using thesauri (three students), Hungarian spelling dictionaries (two students), dictionaries of foreign words (one student), collocation dictionaries (one student) and the Internet (two students). Responses suggest that the majority of the students rely only on traditional mono- or bilingual dictionaries. Therefore, it is important to draw their attention to the role of using other tools and resources, particularly when translating specialised texts.

In response to the last question in this section, which aimed to find out whether translation competence could be developed, all respondents indicated that it was possible. Seven of them thought that it required intensive and continuous practice, three of them mentioned the role of reading, two of them emphasised the importance of vocabulary development, and one student mentioned grammar practice, in particular sentence structure and word order.

#### *5.1.3.1.4 Information about the contents of the EU specialised translation course*

The first question was an open-ended question aiming to find out about the students' expectations about the course. Five respondents expressed their wish to learn a wide range of translation strategies to be able to translate more quickly, more accurately and more appropriately. This idea seems to correspond with what Göpferich (2009: 21) referred to as *translation routine activation competence*. Six students emphasised the importance of acquiring extensive background knowledge, not only EU-specific knowledge but general world knowledge. Four students indicated the need to expand their vocabulary – two of them felt they needed more grammar practice (particularly sentence structure), and one student wanted to develop text comprehension skills in case of more complex texts.

The next question set out to explore the students' target needs regarding future situations in which they can exploit the knowledge acquired in the course. Eight students indicated that they might use it in their future jobs (e.g., working at government or EU institutions, non-profit organizations or companies and even as teachers). Two students emphasised that background knowledge was generally useful in everyday life.

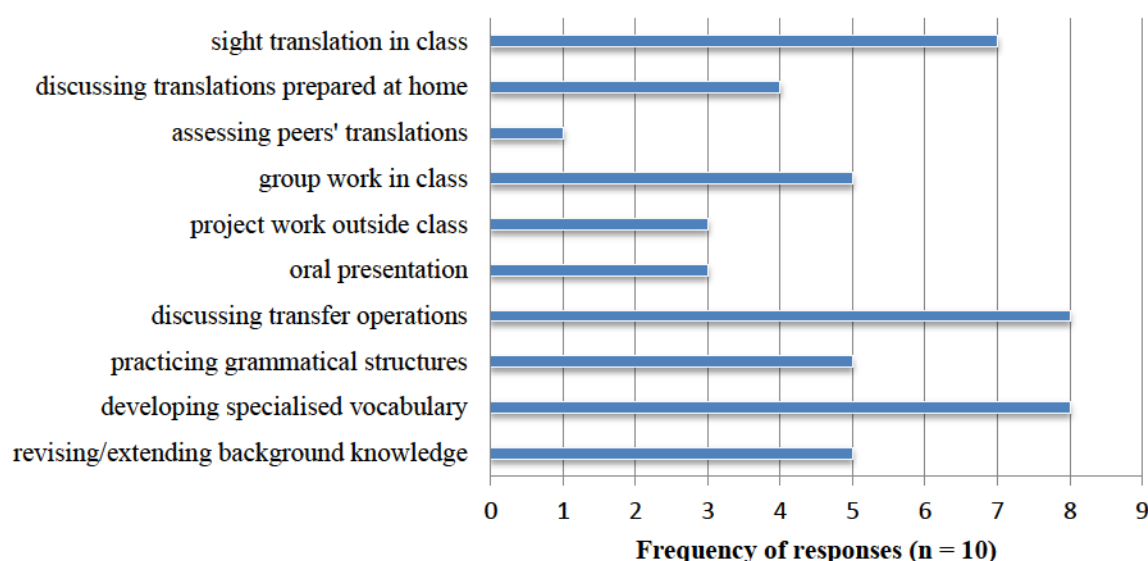
The following question inquired about the EU-related topics that the students consider useful in the course. The students expressed interest in a wide range of EU policies, with the most popular areas being environmental protection, education, culture/media and social affairs. It is important for the teacher to know about students' interests and preferences in

order to select motivating texts and topics the the students perceive as meaningful and relevant.

Concerning the genre of the texts, responses suggest that students are interested in translating a wide variety of textual genres. Interestingly, the genre perceived as most useful was the formal speech (marked by eight students), followed by different documents published by EU institutions (seven students), job advertisements (six students), CVs (five students), legislative texts (five students), parliamentary questions (five students), newspaper articles (four students), official letters (four students) and advertising materials (two students). Although written translation of formal speeches is not typical in real life, students' formal language skills and their awareness of cultural norms and conventions can be developed with the help of such tasks. Introducing and analysing a number of textual genres is essential in any translation course. According several scholars (e.g., Bhatia1993, Flowerdew 2005, Károly 2008, Nord 2005), a genre-oriented textual analysis is a useful tool to describe how language is used by a particular discourse community. Combining a surface analysis of texts – describing lexical-grammatical features – with socio-cultural insights (considering the communicative context) can result in a deeper understanding of how the communicative purpose is realised in a specific genre. According to Koskinen (2000: 57), the EU is a special and discourse community, and EU translations can be divided into three categories: the special case of translating legal texts, intracultural translation (within and between EU institutions) and intercultural translation (between the EU and the member states, including both interadministrative translations and translations for the general public). Since EU texts have a number of purposes, considering the communicative context (including the target audience) is essential in translation.

When asked about their preferred types of activities during the course, the students showed interest in many different activities (*Table 7*). These activities are related to various elements of translation competence, and some focus on the development of independent learning and social skills. Combining these activities can not only help focus on various aspects of translation competence but can also maintain students' motivation. According to Kelly (2005: 97), teachers should provide a rich learning experience, using a variety of activities, methods and techniques, in order to prepare students for the complex art of translation in real life.

*Table 7. The students' preferences concerning activity types*



Finally, the last question aimed to find out what forms of summative evaluation the students would find useful during the course. Eight students indicated that they would like to have several shorter pieces of translation tasks throughout the course, seven students liked the idea of one longer text translated at home and submitted at the end of the course. Four of them found quizzes on EU terminology useful, and two of them were interested in project work and oral presentations. The questionnaire did not include questions related to formative assessment, but it is believed that similar to professional training, in translation courses within foreign language programmes continuous formative assessment (including diverse forms of feedback) is one of the key pedagogical principles.

#### ***5.1.3.2 Interview with the teacher***

In this part of the research the teacher of the specialised translation lecture was interviewed. He had already taught this particular group of students in the previous semester (two Phonetics and Phonology courses), thus he already knew them more closely. Besides teaching first-year linguistics courses, he had taught Translation Theory courses for second- and third-year students in the EU specialisation module. The interview consisted of eight questions, and sought to find out about the teacher's opinion of the students' skills and characteristics as well as the design of the translation courses.

The first question was related to the level of the students' language competence. Based on his past experience, the teacher emphasised that the average level of language proficiency of the students who started the translation course was intermediate or in some cases even

lower. Although the average level of language proficiency of these students was formally B2, the perceived level of their own language competence was higher. This suggests that most students may not be aware of the complexity of language competence, thus further development of bilingual subcompetence, particularly foreign language competence (see the PACTE [2005] model of translation competence) is of utmost importance at this level.

With regard to the students' strengths and weaknesses, the teacher pointed out that one of the biggest problems at this level was not just the lower levels of average foreign language competence (which in his opinion can be compensated by using various strategies during written translation) but the low level of students' language awareness in their mother tongue. According to him, conscious native language skills are extremely important in translation, particularly when translating into Hungarian. Thus, he said that it would be interesting to test students' writing skills in Hungarian prior to the course, which could be used to raise their awareness of their native language competence (not only lexical and grammatical knowledge but spelling, textual and pragmatic knowledge as well). According to the teacher, since these students are native speakers of Hungarian, they generally assume that they can write well in their mother tongue. Nevertheless, as the teacher explained, on average, young Hungarian students tend to read less in their mother tongue (particularly formal texts), which results in spelling, grammar, vocabulary, and textual problems as well as lower cognitive capacities. This is a complex phenomenon, which has an effect on the students' foreign language competence as well. A comprehensive study conducted by Nikolov and Csapó (2010) concluded that there was a strong relationship between L1 and L2 reading skills already at the early phases, suggesting that developing native language competence by reading is crucial in the development of reading comprehension skills in foreign language learning.

The third question aimed to find out the teachers' opinion about students' difficulties in translation. The teacher highlighted two problematic aspects: text comprehension and general background knowledge. In his opinion, these two areas are related, so it is extremely useful to develop students' general knowledge by making them read and/or translate shorter newspaper articles on current issues. He suggested that in the first EU translation course the students could translate newspaper articles dealing with general topics. The idea seems to be interesting, particularly because news translation is an extremely common phenomenon in real life in the printed and online media. However, it has to be taken into consideration that translating news reports is not an easy task given the different generic norms and conventions in English and Hungarian. According to the teacher, another useful activity to develop

students' native language competence and awareness is to edit Hungarian texts (including news articles published in the online media, which often contain several errors).

The interview also sought to find out what the teacher thought about translation tools. In the teacher's opinion, it is useful to know about different computer-assisted translation tools, but at this level there is no need to learn the use of any specific software. According to him, it is much more important for these students to be able to use traditional tools and resources, such as various dictionaries, terminology databases and other corpus-based resources.

Concerning the development of translation competence, the teacher indicated that practice is essential. He emphasised that in this particular EU module, the courses focusing on translation theory are complemented by practical seminars, which allow students to activate their passive and theoretical knowledge and improve their actual performance. According to Göpferich (2009), *translation routine activation competence* includes local translation strategies (compulsory and optional grammatical and lexical transfer operations), which can develop routine and creativity. According to the teacher, local translation strategies should not be presented to the students deductively. Instead, it is much better to teach them in an inductive way, and deal with them as they naturally occur in particular texts. In the interview the students also expressed their interest in discussing various transfer operations, so this aspect seems to be important for both the students and the teacher. With regard to the usefulness of the lectures, the teacher said that learning about translation theory can raise students' overall awareness of the complexity of translation, help them create a conceptual framework, and make them more conscious and reflective translators. In the PACTE (2005) model, this sub-competence is referred to as *knowledge about translation*, including declarative knowledge about translation as an activity and as a profession.

Describing the contents and methodology of the lectures, the teacher said that the first few lectures provided a general introduction to translation, covering the basics of translation theory. The second group of lectures focuses on actual translation tasks and the stages of the translation process. Finally, in the third group of lectures they discuss various tools and resources used in translation. Concerning the methodology used in the lectures, the teacher preferred the presentation style giving room for critical discussion and analysis.

The last question aimed to find out about EU-related topics covered in the lectures. The teacher mentioned that one lecture included some topics related to EU translation, such as the work of EU translators and interpreters, the tools that they use, the process of EU translation, and the function of translated EU texts. It is useful for the students to hear some

background information about translation as a profession in the EU as it can broaden their general knowledge about the complexity of EU translation.

Overall, it seems that the teacher's perceptions about translation in general and the needs of this particular level of students do not always match. Based on the results of the interview, it is clear that future students of this course will benefit from a revised syllabus, with a stronger focus on developing their native language competence and expanding their general background knowledge. By sequencing EU texts and activities appropriately, students can more successfully cope with complex EU texts later in the subsequent seminars.

### **5.1.3.3 Document analysis**

The analysis of the course syllabus of the lecture and the seminar showed that in the three lectures the students received a solid theoretical foundation both in translation theory and translation as a profession, which are important to better understand translation and to become a more conscious translator even if the main aim is not to prepare students for the professional translation market. The seminars which supplement the lectures provide opportunities for the students to put theory into practice.

The syllabi of the seminars are genre-oriented, and the topic of the texts that the students translate are related to the EU. The course syllabi were developed on the basis of the book *EU Fordítóiskola* (Klaudy and Bart 2003), which in 2007 (at the time of designing the course) was the only available book dealing with the translation of EU texts into Hungarian for pedagogical purposes. The book follows clear methodological steps, and it can be utilised also in translation courses outside professional training contexts. Although a genre-oriented methodological approach is relevant in this setting as well, it seems that these students need further practice in developing their native and foreign language skills along with their general and EU-specific background knowledge. In 2009, another book, titled *EU English*, was published in Hungary, written by Anna Trebits and Márta Fischer, which is intended for intermediate (B2 level) learners of English who want or need to learn EU English. The stated aim of the book is (Trebits and Fischer 2009: 8):

[to] improve your ability to communicate effectively in a wide range of situations both in written and spoken communication. It will deepen your knowledge of EU-related issues as well as your fluency in using English to talk or write about them.

This coursebook was used in the six EU seminars in the specialisation module although its methodological principles are relevant also for the EU translation seminars. The units in the book are based on a wide selection of authentic EU texts and EU documents. For example, it contains newspaper articles with EU-related topics, which was also suggested by the teacher of the lectures in the interview as a useful genre in the translation seminars. Furthermore, the book contains a number of language exercises, which are essential in translation courses incorporated into foreign language programmes. Concerning lexical aspects, research indicates that a useful area for development at this level is phraseology, particularly collocations, set phrases, and idiomatic phrases (Heltai 2005b, 2009).

With regard to summative evaluation, longer translation assignments and terminology tests are used in all three seminars. The results of the questionnaire and the interview indicated that vocabulary development is very important at this level, which should not focus only on EU terminology but on general vocabulary as well. Therefore, shorter quizzes testing both general and specific EU vocabulary seem to be useful parts of summative evaluation, but different vocabulary and terminology tasks could also be assessed in a formative way.

Another key area of development is the students' EU background knowledge as part of their translation competence. Although in the EU specialisation module, the students take six EU courses, where they get a general introduction to the EU and its institutional structure, other courses in the EU module should also provide opportunities to activate and extend this knowledge. In the translation seminars, various targeted individual and group assignments (at home or in class) could focus on expanding students' EU-specific background knowledge.

#### **5.1.4 Conclusion**

This localised study aimed to explore the needs and expectations of a particular group of students regarding the contents of an EU translation course, as well as to capture their perceptions about translation and their own language competence. The results suggest that there are differences not only between individual students' needs and expectations but sometimes also between the students' and the teacher's views and perceptions. The discrepancy underlines the role of syllabus development based on needs analysis. Since the main goal of translation courses integrated into foreign language programmes is different from professional translator training courses, it is crucial to converge the students' and the teacher's views. In order to develop students' translation and language competence in a systematic way, teachers should use needs analysis to explore students' individual

characteristics as well as their language level, needs and expectations, and adjust the syllabus accordingly.

One of the main limitations of this exploratory study lies in the fact that it examined the needs and expectations of the students and the teacher only prior to the course. In the actual practice, needs analysis should be a continuous process, exploring the changes in the students' perceptions about translation and the development of their translation competence. Nevertheless, the findings may serve as the basis for revising and improving the syllabus and methodology of similar translation courses within foreign language programmes, and draw attention to the different aims of these courses. The special status of undergraduate translation courses may contribute to viewing translation as a diverse activity and help to re-examine the role of translation in foreign language teaching.

Novice translation students may have very naïve conceptions about translation, but one aim of these courses is to raise their awareness of the complexity of translation and develop their language competence and translation skills. Obviously, it is not easy for these students to judge the difficulty of EU texts, nor the usefulness of teaching methods and the types of activities. Nevertheless, needs analysis is not only a guide for the teacher and a starting point for syllabus development but can also serve as a useful pedagogical tool from the students' perspective. For example, discussing the results of the needs analysis study in class can be an interesting activity and can serve as an introduction to the course. In addition to being highly functional, this activity can motivate the students, making them feel that they are part of the learning and teaching process. It is hoped that the findings of this study have shed light on the most important issues teachers need to consider when designing the syllabi of specialised translation courses. However, similar studies are to be conducted regularly to know more about the development of foreign language learners' (novice translators') translation competence and to ensure that translation courses are responsive to the needs and expectations of the participants.



## 5.2 Research study 2: Exploring students' translation performance (I.)<sup>11</sup>

### 5.2.1 Research aims

The aim of the exploratory study is to investigate a group of Hungarian EFL students' translation performance by comparing their translations of a specialised text (the answer to an EU parliamentary question) to the official translation with a view to identifying and analysing recurring lexical, syntactic and textual (related to grammatical and lexical cohesion) patterns of translation errors. The study focuses only on linguistic (lexical-grammatical) errors, which are primarily linked to the bilingual sub-competence in the PACTE (2011) model of translation competence, but the analysis also seeks to find out how they are related to other sub-competences. Based on the students' performance data and retrospective reports, the study addresses the following research questions:

- (1) At what level(s) of language are student translations different from the official translation of the text?
- (2) What are the students' most typical translation errors when translating the text?
- (3) What elements of translation competence may these errors be linked to?
- (4) How can the investigation of these errors contribute to the design of translation courses?

### 5.2.2 Method

#### 5.2.2.1 Participants and background

The research was conducted at Eszterházy Károly College, Eger, Hungary, at the Department of English Studies during the first semester of the 2009/2010 academic year. The participants were 10 full-time Hungarian students enrolled in the second EU translation seminar course, which forms part of a 50-credit EU specialisation module within the English BA programme. The students were third-year English BA students with an average age of 21 years. Third-year students were chosen because they had already completed one specialised translation course, thus they had some experience and background knowledge about the EU and EU translation.

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<sup>11</sup> Reprinted (in part, with minor adaptations) from *English for Specific Purposes*, Vol. 31., No. 1., Károly, A. Translation competence and translation performance: lexical, syntactic and textual patterns in student translations of a specialised EU genre. 36–46. Copyright (2012), with permission from Elsevier.

This previous knowledge helped the students to make more conscious decisions and justify their decisions in the follow-up retrospective interviews.

#### **5.2.2.2 Data collection**

Given the qualitative and exploratory nature of the research, textual analysis and retrospective interviews were used to collect data. The students' task was to translate a specialised EU text from English into Hungarian. The selection of the text was carefully planned, taking into account several aspects that were expected to affect the students' translation performance. These aspects were related to the authenticity, the topic, the genre, the length, the difficulty, and the topicality of the text. The text selected was the European Commission's written answer to a parliamentary question addressed by Béla Glattfelder, a Hungarian MEP on 5 August 2009. The text dealt with animal welfare measures, more specifically with the practice of force-feeding geese in Hungary. The text of the parliamentary question (see *Appendix D*) served as the context for the translation task (translating the Commission's answer to the question). In class, the question was read, translated and analysed so that the students would be familiar with the topic and aware of its pragmatic context. Knowing the communicative situation is of utmost importance in a functional approach to translation as it determines the communicative purpose of the source text, which is essential for producing an adequate and appropriate translation. The Commission gave a written answer to this question on 15 September 2009, which constituted the translation task (see *Appendix E*). This text was also analysed from a pragmatic perspective in order to clarify the communicative situation. Students had to translate the Commission's answer from English into Hungarian. The assignment was based on a short translation instruction, which has a central pedagogical role as it defines the conditions under which the target text can carry out its particular function.

#### **5.2.2.3 Procedures of analysis**

The textual analysis was carried out in the following way: the sentences in the student translations were numbered and then compared to the official translation in order to identify the most typical errors. Since variation is inevitable in translation, the official Hungarian translation was only considered one possible solution rather than the final measure of quality when identifying errors, particularly non-binary ones (when there is more than one good solution) (Pym 1992). Pym (1992) argued that translation teachers must deal with binary errors as well (most of them linguistic errors), which are particularly common with lower

levels of students. The assessment of students' translations was based on the formative evaluation model developed by Dróth (2001), but Klaudy's (2003) categories of lexical and grammatical transfer operations were also used in the analysis.

Dróth's (2001) framework includes five language levels: the communicative situation, the textual level, the syntactic level, the lexical level and surface features (see Section 2.5.3.2). During translation - which is a highly complex decision-making process – translators have to make conscious strategic choices and perform several actions, which Klaudy (2003) refers to as *transfer operations*. These obligatory or optional transfer operations are divided into two main categories: grammatical and lexical, which are further divided into sub-types based on the manner of operation and its causes.

After the individual analysis of the students' translations, they were compared to each other to find recurring patterns of errors. In the retrospective interviews, each student was asked about the translation process, including their individual difficulties, in order to find the roots of their errors. Finally, the errors were analysed according to which element of translation competence they were linked to, based on the PACTE group's (2011) model of translation competence.

### 5.2.3 Results and discussion

This section presents the most common lexical, syntactic and textual errors identified in the students' translations. Complementing the textual analysis, the retrospective interviews provided supplementary information about the translation process and the students' individual performance, and helped to achieve a more comprehensive and objective analysis. In the second section, the study discusses which sub-competences the students had to use in order to solve various translation problems and overcome their individual difficulties.

#### 5.2.3.1 The most frequent errors in the student translations

*Table 8* summarises the most typical errors, indicating the language level at which they occurred, while *Table 9* summarises the frequency of the types of errors. In the subsequent section, examples of these errors from the students' translations are presented and discussed to find the possible reasons that led to the inaccurate or inappropriate solution. In the examples ST stands for source text, referring to the sentences in the original English text (numbered from 1-12), and TT (target text) refers to the student translations.

Table 8. The most frequent translation errors in the student translations

| SENTENCE NUMBER | LEVEL OF ERROR | TYPE OF TRANSLATION ERROR   | FREQUENCY OF OCCURRENCE (N = 10) |
|-----------------|----------------|---|----------------------------------|
| 1               | lexical        | translation of 'is aware of'  | 5                                |
|                 | syntactic      | translation of the complex postmodifying noun phrase: 'the importance for Hungary of the production of foie gras from geese'                            | 6                                |
| 2               | lexical        | translation of the verb 'cover'   | 7                                |
|                 | syntactic      | translation of the set phrase 'animals kept for farming purposes'   | 6                                |
|                 |                | translation of the postmodifying participial phrase: 'Directive 98/58/EC concerning the protection of animals kept for farming purposes'                | 5                                |
|                 |                | misinterpretation of the sentence resulting from its complex syntactic structure  | 5                                |
| 3               | lexical        | translation of the phrase 'give effect to'  | 4                                |
|                 | syntactic      | translation of the postmodifying prepositional phrase: 'the European Convention for the Protection of Animals kept for Farming Purposes of 1976'        | 5                                |
|                 | textual        | translation of the reference 'this'   | 5                                |
| 4               | lexical        | translation of the verb 'cover'   | 7                                |
|                 | syntactic      | misinterpretation of the sentence resulting from its complex syntactic structure  | 3                                |
|                 | textual        | translation of the reference 'it'   | 7                                |
| 5               | lexical        | translation of 'subsequent'   | 8                                |
|                 |                | translation of the phrase 'Community law'   | 4                                |
| 6               | lexical        | translation of 'as such'  | 6                                |
| 7               | lexical        | translation of the verb 'include'   | 9                                |
|                 |                | translation of the phrase 'welfare aspects'   | 5                                |
|                 |                | translation of the phrase 'put someone under obligation'  | 9                                |
|                 |                | translation of the phrase 'encourage research'  | 5                                |
|                 |                | translation of the postmodifying participial phrase: 'countries allowing foie gras production'  | 6                                |
|                 |                | translation of the interruption 'such as Hungary'   | 7                                |
|                 |                | interpretation of the clause – resulting from the uncommon position of 'only'   | 9                                |
|                 | textual        | length of the sentence resulting from the number of clauses   | 7                                |
|                 |                | translation of the conjunction 'on the contrary'  | 5                                |
|                 |                |   |                                  |
| 8               | lexical        | translation of the verb 'foresee'   | 3                                |
|                 |                | translation of the phrase 'scientific evidence'   | 9                                |
|                 |                | translation of the phrase 'current practice'  | 6                                |
|                 |                | translation of the phrase 'domestic law'  | 7                                |
|                 |                | translation of the postmodifying participial phrase: 'standards laid down in domestic law'  | 5                                |
| 9               | syntactic      | translation of the modal 'shall'  | 8                                |
| 10              | lexical        | translation of the phrase 'raise awareness'   | 6                                |
|                 |                | translation of the phrase 'create consensus'  | 7                                |
|                 |                | translation of the word 'consensus'   | 6                                |
|                 |                | translation of the phrase 'action plan'   | 4                                |
|                 | syntactic      | translation of the clause containing two postmodifying phrases: 'actions defined in the Community Action Plan on the Protection and Welfare of Animals' | 4                                |
| 11              | lexical        | translation of the phrase 'build a common understanding'  | 5                                |
|                 |                | translation of the word 'agreement'   | 3                                |
|                 |                | translation of the phrase 'develop a policy'  | 4                                |
|                 |                | translation of the phrase 'mutually agreed'   | 3                                |
|                 | syntactic      | misinterpretation of the sentence resulting from its complex syntactic structure  | 5                                |
| 12              | lexical        | translation of the phrase 'lead the debate'   | 8                                |
|                 |                | translation of the phrase 'share recognition of'  | 7                                |
|                 |                | translation of the phrase 'disguised restrictions'  | 5                                |
|                 | syntactic      | misinterpretation of the sentence resulting from its complex structure  | 5                                |
|                 |                | recognizing the plural form of 'fora'   | 4                                |

Table 9. Summary of the frequency of error types

| TYPE OF ERROR | FREQUENCY OF ERROR TYPES | TOTAL NUMBER OF OCCURRENCES OF ERRORS BELONGING TO THE PARTICULAR ERROR TYPE |
|---------------|--------------------------|--|
| lexical       | 27                       | 158  |
| syntactic     | 15                       | 79   |
| textual       | 3                        | 17   |

The following examples further illustrate the problem of translating non-EU-specific verbs. In seven cases, the translation of the verb *to cover* in Sentence 4 was inappropriate. The retrospective interviews made it clear that the students found it difficult to decide on the Hungarian verb as the English verb had several different meanings. The following is an example of an inappropriate solution:

English ST (4): The recommendation concerning domestic geese and their crossbreeds ('the recommendation') *covers* the production of foie gras from these animals, it was adopted in 1999 with the support of the Community.

Hungarian TT: A házi ludakról és azok keresztezett fajtáiról szóló ajánlás (a továbbiakban: 'ajánlás') *magában foglalja* az ezen állatokból történő hizott libamáj előállítását, ezt 1999-ben fogadták el a Közösség támogatásával.

*Magában foglalja* (lit.: includes) is not acceptable here. The best solution was to apply specification as a transfer operation and choose a semantically richer Hungarian verb such as *szabályozza* (lit.: regulate). The subject of the sentence is a type of Community legal act (recommendation), so *szabályozza* is the right choice in this case. Another example is from Sentence 8, where the translation of the verb *foresee* was problematic for three students because it had a very specific meaning typically found in legal texts, which is not offered by all dictionaries (*rendelkezik*, lit.: provide or enact).

In theory, the translation of EU terms and set phrases is relatively easy since they have a fixed Hungarian equivalent codified in terminology databases, such as *IATE* (<http://iate.europa.eu>), the official online multilingual terminology database of the EU. Although the students were familiar with this online resource, six of them did not recognise the specific EU phrase in Sentence 2:

English ST (2): Foie gras production is covered by Directive 98/58/EC concerning the protection of *animals kept for farming purposes*.

Hungarian TT: A hizott libamáj termelését érinti a 98/58/EK irányelv a *haszonállatok* védelmére vonatkozólag.

*Animals kept for farming purposes* is a set phrase in EU texts, and thus the only acceptable Hungarian equivalent is *tenyésztés céljából tartott állatok* (lit.: animals kept for breeding purposes) even if the equivalent used in the example sentence above is often heard in standard Hungarian (lit.: livestock or farm animals). Therefore, teachers should suggest checking every lexical item that looks EU-specific in terminology databases or in online parallel EU corpora, such as *Eur-lex*. One of the principles in the standardization of EU terminology is that translators try to avoid using foreign words, thus they either find an already existing Hungarian equivalent or create a new lexical item, which will have specific EU meaning. However, this procedure is not always consistent, and as a result, some EU terms in Hungarian are foreign words even if there is a more understandable Hungarian word carrying the same meaning (Fischer 2008). For example, in this particular text, *consensus* had to be translated as *konszenzus* rather than *egyetértés*, whereas *action plan* is not *akcióterv* but *cselekvési terv*. The former term caused a problem for three students and the latter for six students. Therefore, careful checking of every term in a terminology database should be encouraged.

Another frequent lexical translation error was related to collocations. The following example illustrates such a problem:

English ST (3): This directive aims at *giving effect* within Community legislation *to the European Convention for the Protection of Animals for Farming Purposes of 1976* ('the Convention').

Hungarian TT: Az irányelv célja, hogy *hatályba léptesse* a Közösségi jogszabályokban az 1976-os tenyésztés céljából tartott állatok védelmére vonatkozó európai egyezményt (a továbbiakban: 'egyezmény').

The translation of collocations is not as easy as the translation of EU terms and set phrases, which can be found in EU terminology databases. Therefore, students have to use other resources, such as a bilingual dictionary or online parallel corpora (e.g., *Eur-lex*). However, sometimes a good bilingual dictionary cannot help, either. Five students mentioned the problem that the dictionary listed several Hungarian equivalents, making their choice very difficult. Thus, it is useful to pay attention to the context in which the collocation is used, and check the usage of the collocation in online parallel EU corpora to see the translation norm. *Give effect to* means *carry out in practice*, so *hatályba léptet* (lit.: put into effect, enforce) is not an acceptable Hungarian equivalent. Some of the students mentioned that the collocation *come into effect* had misled them. Other examples of problematic collocations in the source

text were: *to raise awareness, to put somebody under obligations, to create consensus, to lead the debate, and to encourage research.*

Another type of error stemmed from recognizing the modal meaning of *shall* in sentence 9. *Shall* frequently appears in legal documents and has a special meaning denoting obligation. This sense of obligation is restricted to formal legal genres. This word caused a problem for eight students, all of whom said in the retrospective interview that they had not heard of this usage before and had thought the word simply expressed the future tense. Since legislative texts (particularly EU legal documents) are one of the most difficult genres for the students to translate both lexically and syntactically, they should only be introduced when students have gained some experience in translation.

#### 5.2.3.1.2 Syntactic errors

Students had to solve various syntactic translation problems throughout the text. In sentence 1, the translation of the extended nominal phrase *the importance for Hungary of the production of foie gras from geese* posed a problem for six students. The following example shows one of the unacceptable translations:

English ST (1): The Commission is aware of *the importance for Hungary of the production of foie gras from geese.*

Hungarian TT: A Bizottság értesült *a magyar hizott libamáj termelésének fontosságáról.*

(lit.: The Commission was informed about the importance of Hungarian foie gras production.)

Nominal phrases are very frequent in English EU texts, and as the possibility of complementation in postposition is unlimited in English, students are often faced with lengthy right branching structures. Although it is possible to transform postmodifiers in English into premodifiers in Hungarian (just like in the above example), the result is often a long left branching structure, which is extremely unusual in Hungarian and is much more difficult for the reader to understand. The above cited student translation of the sentence expresses that Hungarian foie gras production is important, but the meaning is unclear as it does not imply that it is important for Hungary. Since one of the fundamental principles in translation is to follow target language norms and conventions, a better solution here is to translate the nominal phrase as a clause. Although it is not an obligatory transfer operation, it is preferred by Hungarian translators, and thus can be considered a translation norm (Klaudy 2003). This solution was applied in the official Hungarian translation of this sentence, but it occurs only in

four of the student translations. The following example illustrates a good solution by one of the students, using the transfer operation called elevation:

Hungarian TT: A Bizottság tisztában van azzal, *hogy milyen fontos Magyarország számára a hizott libamáj előállítása.*  
 (lit.: The Commission is aware that it is important for Hungary to produce foie gras.)

The postmodifier may also be a prepositional phrase or a participial phrase, in which case grammatical transposition (positioning them to the left of the head noun) is the most acceptable transfer operation. In sentence 8 there is a participial phrase functioning as a postmodifier, the translation of which resulted in an error in five cases. The example shows the appropriate solution:

English ST (8): [...] only in accordance with standards *laid down in domestic law.*  
 Hungarian TT: [...] összhangban a hazai jogban lefektetett előírásokkal.

In many cases complex syntactic structures led to the misinterpretation of the sentence. For example, in sentence 2 the passive structure and the postmodifying participial phrase caused problems. In the retrospective interview, the students said that because of the complex sentence structure, it was difficult for them to understand the sentence. To make the sentence more complicated, the postmodifying participial phrase has a complex structure as it contains another participial phrase. Sentence 2 illustrates such a problem:

English ST (2): Foie gras production is covered by Directive 98/58/EC *concerning the protection of animals kept for farming purposes.*  
 Hungarian TT: A hizott libamáj előállításáról szóló 98/58/EK irányelv magában foglalja a tenyésztés céljából tartott állatok védelmét.  
 (lit.: The 98/58/EC Directive concerning the production foie gras includes the protection of animals for farming purposes.)

The addition of a special adjectival participle *szóló* (referred to as an adjectiviser by Klaudy 2003) is a very useful transfer operation applied by many students, however, in five cases the sentence was misinterpreted because of the complex syntactic structure, resulting in an incorrect translation – as shown by the example above.

The length of the sentences caused another typical error. For example, sentence 7 was very long and complex. Seven students decided to keep the sentence boundaries without



dividing it into clauses. Sentence separation is not an obligatory transfer operation, but without applying it, the result was a complex Hungarian sentence.

English ST (7): On the contrary, the recommendation explicitly acknowledges the legality of the production of foie gras as such and only puts countries allowing foie gras production, such as Hungary, under certain obligations, i.e. inter alia, it obliges countries allowing foie gras production to encourage research on its welfare aspects and on alternative methods, which do not include gavage.

Hungarian TT: Épp ellenkezőleg, az ajánlás egyértelműen elismeri a hizott libamáj előállításának törvényességét, és csak olyan hizott libamájat előállító országokat, mint Magyarország korlátoz, többek között kötelezi a hizott libamájat termelő országokat, hogy kezdeményezzenek kutatást ennek jóléti vonatkozásairól és alternatív módszerekről, amelyek nem tartalmazzák a libatömést.

This sentence illustrates two other syntactic errors. The first is in connection with the topical structure of the sentence. The position of *only* led to the misinterpretation of the sentence for nine students. In the source text *only* is related to *certain obligations* and not to the phrase *countries allowing foie gras production*. Therefore, in order to maintain the original meaning of the sentence, the students had to transpose *only*. In the retrospective interviews, the students reported that finding the focus of the clause was problematic because of the position of *only*. The other error illustrated by this sentence is the interpretation of the phrase *such as Hungary*. This phrase is inserted into the middle of the clause separating elements that belong together, thus making the interpretation and the translation of the sentence difficult. As a good solution, three students eliminated the interruption by moving it to a different position in the sentence.

#### 5.2.3.1.3 Textual errors

At the textual level, the analysis included the most frequent errors only in connection with grammatical and lexical cohesion, more specifically with reference and conjunctions. Reference is a type of grammatical cohesive device, which frequently caused problems for the students. In sentence 7, for example, the pronoun *it* refers to *the recommendation*, which is at the beginning of the previous complex clause. In five student translations, it was unclear what *it* referred to because the students did not specify it by repeating the word *recommendation*. It is important to note that pronouns are often omitted in Hungarian.

- English ST (7): On the contrary, the recommendation explicitly acknowledges the legality of the production of foie gras as such and only puts countries allowing foie gras production, such as Hungary, under certain obligations, i.e. *inter alia*, *it* obliges countries allowing foie gras production to encourage research on its welfare aspects and on alternative methods, which do not include gavage.
- Hungarian TT: Épp ellenkezőleg, az ajánlás egyértelműen elismeri a hizott libamáj előállításának törvényességét, és csak olyan hizott libamájat előállító országokat, mint Magyarország korlátoz, többek között kötelezi a hizott libamájat termelő országokat, hogy kezdeményezzenek kutatást ennek jóléti vonatkozásairól és alternatív módszerekről, amelyek nem alkalmazzák a libatörmést.
- (Lit.: On the contrary, the recommendation explicitly acknowledges the legality of the production of foie gras and restricts only countries allowing foie gras production, such as Hungary, *inter alia*, it obliges countries producing foie gras to initiate research on its welfare aspects and on alternative methods, which do not include gavage.)

Another recurring textual error was related to the use of conjunctions. One example is *on the contrary* in sentence 7, which caused a problem for five students. Some inappropriate solutions were the following: *ezzel szemben* (lit.: in contrast), *ennek ellenére* (lit.: in spite of this), *ellenben* (lit.: however), or no conjunction.

#### 5.2.3.2 Translation errors in relation to translation competence

In the translation model of the PACTE research group (2011), translation competence consists of several sub-competences. In order to solve translation problems at the lexical, syntactic, and textual level, students had to use their *bilingual* sub-competence. However, the retrospective interviews highlighted the importance of the other sub-competences as well, and showed that the bilingual sub-competence is strongly linked to the other sub-competences in the model. Students' linguistic choices seem to be highly dependent on a number of extra-linguistic factors, such as background knowledge, the use of translation tools as well as cognitive and affective factors.

In many cases, the students had to draw on their *extra-linguistic* sub-competence and use their encyclopaedic, thematic and bicultural knowledge. Translation problems are incredibly difficult to resolve without knowing the function and working of EU institutions and the legislative process. In addition, having background information about the topic (in this case about force-feeding geese in Hungary) can clearly help students to make the right translation choices. In the retrospective interviews, the students often referred to the lack of this knowledge as being at the root of their translation errors.

Declarative and procedural *knowledge about translation* as an activity and a profession (in this case EU translation and EU translators) also seem to affect students' performance. It is highly beneficial if students are familiar with the process and the function of translation in the EU institutions (e.g., where and how Hungarian translators work, where these translations are published, who the prospective audience is, and what norms translators must follow).

*Instrumental* sub-competence (using various translation resources) appears to play a vital role in solving lexical problems. If students recognised EU terms (which was often difficult), it was relatively easy to find the equivalents in the EU terminology database. If, however, the lexical item was not a term, they had to use different tools, which often posed some problems. One such case is the translation of collocations, which seemed to be problematic for students due to problems related to instrumental sub-competence. Therefore, it is the teachers' role to make students familiar with all available translation resources (dictionaries, parallel texts, glossaries) and to continuously develop their resourcing skills.

In the competence model of the PACTE research group, *strategic* sub-competence has a central role as it is used to monitor and coordinate the whole translation, which includes planning the process, identifying and solving problems, activating the most appropriate strategies and evaluating the product. This is a sort of meta-competence referring to all the strategies that may be called into action, including those that can compensate for the shortcomings and insufficient translation competence. According to Bergen (2009) research on translation competence could benefit considerably from research on learning strategies (particularly metacognitive strategies) – a key research area in second language acquisition and foreign language learning and teaching. Thus, it is advisable that teachers continuously develop this sub-competence through a wide range of individual and cooperative tasks and projects.

The *psycho-physiological* sub-competence includes psychomotor, cognitive, and attitudinal factors, which have an impact on translation performance. In the retrospective interviews, students mentioned motivation, emotion, memory, attention span, creativity, logical thinking, self-confidence and perseverance as key factors in translation. The attitudinal component of this sub-competence is something that the teacher can easily influence.

### 5.2.4 Conclusion

The aim of this study was to uncover the recurring patterns of lexical, syntactic and textual (related to lexical and grammatical cohesion) errors that occur in the student translations of a particular text and link them to the elements of translation competence. The findings showed that most of the errors in the student translations are lexical in nature, but syntactic errors and errors related to lexical and grammatical cohesion were also frequent. The analysis revealed that linguistic errors are often related to non-linguistic sub-competences that are part of translation competence. Being aware of the most frequent translation problems is crucial for translation teachers as it can help to make translation classes more focused and tailored to the students' actual levels and needs. This is particularly important in the case of translation courses built into foreign language programmes, where the key learning objectives and students' needs and levels are different from those in professional translator training programmes. Nevertheless, the analysis of the roots of the students' translation errors indicated that viewing translation skills as a complex set of interrelated competences (such as in professional translator training) is useful also at this level.

The error analysis was carried out primarily for research purposes, but the findings can form the basis of subsequent in-class activities focusing on the most typical errors. The research results are relevant to not only EFL syllabus and material design at the undergraduate level but also to foreign language and translation teaching practice, particularly those courses that aim to develop students' translation competence in a functional (communicative) way. By using a wide range of in- and out-of-class, individual and collaborative tasks and activities (which are carefully prepared) along with different types of formative and summative assessment, teachers can facilitate the development of several elements of students' translation competence, as well as a number of generic, transferrable skills (e.g., precision, problem-solving, analytical skills, awareness, independence, critical thinking and collaboration). Some examples of suitable activities are discussing translations prepared at home, back translation, analysing (and critiquing) published translations, comparing and analysing source and target texts (e.g., an EU text and its official Hungarian translation), oral translation in class, summarising texts orally in a different language, translating shorter texts in class and then comparing and discussing the different versions (for example as group work), project work outside class, peer assessment, student presentations focusing on specific problems/topics, tasks focusing on specific grammatical and lexical transfer operations, tasks focusing on the translation of collocations and set phrases (always in context), practicing

sentence structure and word order, practicing specialised (EU) vocabulary, text comprehension tasks, reading parallel texts (for example as pre-translation task), practicing the use of various tools and resources and revising EU-related background knowledge.

An obvious limitation of this localised study is the number of participants as well as the specific genre of the source text. Still, it is hoped that the methodology used in this study could serve as a basis for similar empirical investigations in the future, which could enrich students' learning experience in the translation and foreign language classroom. However, in order to paint a more comprehensive picture of foreign language students' translation competence and performance as well as to explore the use of translation within foreign language programmes, more localised and/or international comparative empirical research is needed in the future. Extending the study to involve different language pairs or students with no or very little translation experience would also provide more insights into the issue.

### **5.3 Research study 3: Exploring students' translation performance (II.)<sup>12</sup>**

#### **5.3.1 Research aims**

The study focuses on the translation performance of Hungarian EFL learners. It aims to identify and analyse translation problems that novice translation students face when translating three different English texts that deal with EU topics. Before the analysis of the student translations, the results of a detailed, translation-oriented source text analysis are presented (based on Nord 2005), which in the actual pedagogical situation was part of the translation task. The analysis of the student translations draws on Nord's (2005) categories of translation problems and difficulties. The study also seeks to explore students' individual difficulties, which are the possible sources of their translation errors. Motivated by these aims, the research addresses the following questions:

- (1) What translation problems do novice students face when attempting to translate three particular texts with EU topics?
- (2) What individual difficulties do they have that can account for these problems?

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- (3) How can these problems and difficulties orientate teachers in designing tasks and activities for the students?

Revealing the most common translation problems and individual difficulties can provide valuable insights into the competence level of a particular group of students, and thus can guide the teacher in the design of translation courses incorporated into foreign language programmes. The results of the study may be useful for teachers of English as a foreign language for two reasons: firstly, developing translation competence by using authentic translation activities is useful in itself because translation skills are often required on the job market, secondly, by activating various language and metacognitive skills, translation can also contribute to the development of students' overall communicative competence in the foreign and native language, and can enhance the development of generic, transferrable skills.

### **5.3.2 Pre-translation source text analysis**

In Nord's model, analysing the extra- and intratextual features of the source text before translation has a crucial role since students collect important information about the particular text types and texts, which can help them to make decisions during the actual translation. It is possible to use a variety of activities in this phase. For example, the analysis can be made individually, followed by a group or whole-class discussion, when students can share their ideas. This encourages collaboration, which is an essential social skill today. The following sections present the results of the pre-translation source text analysis of the three texts selected for the research (see *Appendix F, G, and H*).

#### **5.3.2.1 Text 1: Commission press release**

The first text (*Appendix F*) was a press release, which is a genre used by the European Commission in its everyday work. Due to the multicultural and multilingual nature of the EU, the press release is embedded in a unique communicative situation. The special context surrounding the Commission press release and the complexity of the Commission's institutional functions, have given rise to a genre with a unique textual pattern, different from press releases issued by other organizations (Lindholm 2008). Lindholm (2008) has also pointed out that all Commission press releases are published online in the RAPID database ([europa.eu/rapid](http://europa.eu/rapid)), so the target audience is not only the journalist community based in Brussels, but the citizens of the EU as well. This results in the combination of informative

and promotional communicative functions (Lindholm 2008). As stated in the Commission's internal style guide, "Not only should the press release give details of the Commission's latest initiative, report or event, but it should help support a wider strategic message – about the 'added value' of the European Union. Each press release should demonstrate how the EU delivers benefits to citizens which only EU action could achieve" (as cited in Lindholm 2008: 38). The way press releases are issued is also unique. The Commission has a pressroom, where a press conference (midday briefing) is held every day by a spokesperson working at the Directorate-General for Communication with the journalist community, who can have questions. The spokesperson is the link between the producer of the text (the Commission, or more specifically, a given Directorate-General) and the journalists. The journalists are experts in European issues, and their role is paramount since European citizens receive the news through them. Since the journalists can address questions to the spokesperson, the press conference is an opportunity for the Commission to anticipate the reception of measures reported in the press release. *Midday Express* is issued daily, with the introductions of that day's press releases. Therefore, the introduction section of the press release has an important function: it summarises the whole message and stands alone as an independent text.

It is also important to consider all the participants in the drafting process, who are often non-native speakers of English and are not communication experts. First, officials working at the given Directorate-General draft and redraft the first version, usually in English, then the Directorate-General for Communication (spokespersons) redrafts the text in cooperation with the Cabinet, the personal office of the given Commissioner, who do the 'political fine-tuning of the message' and approve the final version. After approval, the text goes to the Directorate-General for Translation, and finally, the spokesperson checks it again before the press conference. Furthermore, the press release is part of a sequence of communicative events, and it is only one of the many texts the Commission issues on the same topic. This accounts for the concrete references to other texts within or at the end of the text, where the reader can find further information. Alternatively, the text can contain direct quotations usually from the commissioner in charge of the Directorate-General responsible for the policy area at issue. This is the part where the political message of the EU as a discourse community is most evident in the text. There are also restrictions on the length of the text (3,000 characters) to facilitate understanding and translation, which may result in subheadings or bullet point lists in the text. Depending on the subject matter and its relevance, some of these texts are translated into all the 23 official EU languages; however, some of the texts are published only in a few languages or only in English.

The text used in the research appeared online on 25 February 2011, in English, French, and German. There was no official Hungarian translation of the text, which is important since the students had to prepare their translation at home. At the end of the text, there was a reference to a Commission directive related to this issue, adopted on 28 January 2011. This text appeared in the Official Journal of the European Union (available online on [eur-lex.europa.eu](http://eur-lex.europa.eu)). As directives are legal texts, they are translated into all the official languages, including Hungarian. This particular directive, available online, formed the background to the particular press release the students had to translate, and students were recommended to use it as a parallel text.

The topic of the text was related to health and consumer policy. More specifically, it was about an EU-wide ban on the use of bisphenol (a chemical substance) in the production of plastic baby bottles. Because of the highly specific subject matter, the text contained some lexical items from the field of chemistry and biology. In the class discussion, some useful online sources were mentioned, which could help students translate specialised vocabulary items.

EU press releases are official EU texts, but their language is not as complex as in EU legislative texts. Nevertheless, they are also hybrid in nature, characterised by EU-specific linguistic features, including the frequent use of EU-specific lexical items (terms, set phrases, collocations and lexical bundles), technical words depending on the topic of the text (related to a specific EU policy area), legal terms and phrases, complex sentences (especially extended nominal phrases in which a long noun phrase, a prepositional phrase or a participial phrase postmodifies the head), as well as passive structures, references and conjunctions.

### **5.3.2.2 Text 2: Answer given to a written parliamentary question**

The second text selected for the research (*Appendix G*) was the answer to an EU parliamentary question, which is also an official EU document, available online on the Eur-Lex website and the official website of the European Parliament, one of the most multilingual and multicultural EU institutions. Any Member of the European Parliament (MEP) can pose questions to the Commission or the Council of the European Union, and they may request a written answer. Questions are published in the Official Journal of the European Union once there is an official answer from the institution to which it is addressed. Priority questions must be answered within three weeks of being forwarded to their addressee, while the time limit in case of non-priority questions is six weeks. Parliamentary questions may concern any problematic issue, which is considered important by a particular MEP or group of MEPs, who



can require more information or an official explanation from an EU institution. In the answer, the main communicative purpose is to give information, provide an explanation for, or consider action related to the issue raised in the question. Since the answer is published in the official journal, the target audience is not only the addressee(s) (the MEP or group of MEPs) posing the question but all the members of the European Parliament, EU and national officials and politicians, and the general public.

The particular text chosen to be translated was the written answer to a parliamentary question, put for written answer by a Danish MEP, Mogens Camre (belonging to the parliamentary group UEN – Union for the Europe of Nations) on 13 February, 2009, addressed to the Commission. The answer to the question was given by Androulla Vassiliou on behalf of the Commission on 2 March 2009. The original language of the question was Danish, and it is interesting that although the topic was about Hungary, it has not been translated into Hungarian, only into Dutch, English, Finnish, French, German, Greek, Italian, Portuguese, Spanish, and Swedish. The answer was given in English, and it has been translated only to Danish. The question and the answer dealt with an issue concerning the plucking of live geese in Hungary. The issue was shown in a documentary on a Swedish television channel and provoked negative public reaction.

Parliamentary questions and answers are also hybrid EU texts, with special features in terms of lexis and syntactic structure. In class, the question was read, discussed, analysed and translated into Hungarian in order to create the context for the answer, and provide some background knowledge to the particular issue. Parliamentary questions are usually shorter than the answers, and their language is less complex as they are written by MEPs, not official EU institutions. However, written answers reveal the typical features of EU language use. Compared to press releases, they contain more EU-specific terms and multi-word units, which characterise legal texts. Furthermore, their syntactic structure can also make them challenging to translate.

### **5.3.2.3 Text 3: Online news report**

The third text selected was an online news report (*Appendix H*). Media discourse is a popular and widely researched area in many language-related fields, and the news report, in particular, has been studied from different perspectives (Fairclough 1995, Scollon 1998, van Dijk 1988). Journalistic writing has several prominent structural and linguistic features, which make it easily distinguishable from any other ways of language use. The specific communicative situation in which the text is embedded is of great importance. The online news report used in

this study was published on the EUBusiness website on 24 October 2010, and the topic is the difference of opinion in economic issues after the economic crisis, making the forthcoming EU summit very challenging. EUBusiness is Europe's leading independent online business information service, which provides daily-updated EU-related business news. It was founded in 1997 in Luxembourg, but the site is managed and owned by EUBusiness Ltd. in the United Kingdom. Therefore, this particular text represents the British news report genre.

The discourse community producing this text is different from that in the other two texts, since journalists write it. Its main communicative function is to inform the public about events and activities, in this particular case, the daily business-related activities of the European Union. According to the EUBusiness website, their target audience is very wide, including people doing business in and with the EU, opinion formers (lobbyists, academics and journalists) and policy decision makers (international and national politicians, consultants, lawyers and other civil servants). The informative function is the primary function of news reports, but evaluation and persuasion are also present, manifesting themselves at various levels of the text. For example, besides being informative and concise, the title serves to capture the attention of the readers and provide context for the story. Translating the title is one of the most challenging tasks for students because they have to take into account the genre conventions of the target language, which in this case is different from the English conventions. The lexis of the text contains several informal and idiomatic words and expressions, phrasal verbs and evaluative adjectives. Students have to be extremely cautious when translating these since the target language conventions may be different. The channel of communication is written media, which also results in a high frequency of adjectives. The text is also challenging from a pragmatic perspective as it has contextual references to other events, organizations and persons, which serve as a background to this particular story and are crucial for comprehension.

### **5.3.3 Research design**

#### ***5.3.3.1 Setting and participants***

The study was conducted at Eszterházy Károly College, Eger, Hungary, in 2011, at the Department of English Studies. The participants were second-year full-time undergraduate students of English, who enrolled for the seminar Theory and Practice of Specialised Translation 2. This course is part of a 50-credit EU specialisation module within the English BA programme, starting in the second year. The whole module consists of the following

courses: two Rhetoric and Stylistics seminars, three Communication Skills seminars, five English for EU Purposes seminars. The latter cover a wide range of issues related to the EU, including its institutional structure and various policy areas, such as social policy, regional policy, economy, language and cultural policy and translation, and one lecture giving a historical overview of European integration. The courses Theory and Practice of Specialised Translation include three lectures focusing on theoretical issues related to translation in general and in the context of the EU, and three seminars providing practice in translating EU-texts. The lectures and seminars run parallel and complement each other.

The participants of the study involved all 12 full-time students enrolled for the second EU-translation seminar, so they can still be considered novice translation students. The reason for choosing these students is that they have very little or no previous translation experience. It is important to note, however, that in the previous semester, the students familiarised themselves with the European Union, its basic concepts and institutions, and were introduced to the most important online tools that they can use during translation (EU terminology databases and parallel corpuses of EU texts available on the internet).

### 5.3.3.2 *Texts selected for the research*

The research was based on a translation assignment, in which the students had to translate three different texts with topics related to the EU. The texts selected for the task were the following:

**Text 1** (for the full text and the translation instruction see *Appendix F*): Press release, produced by the Commission (from the official website of the EU) Title: *Bisphenol A: EU ban on use in baby bottles enters into force next week*

**Text 2** (see *Appendix G*): Answer given to a written parliamentary question, produced by the Commission (from the official website of the EU). Title: *Plucking of live geese in Hungary*

**Text 3** (See *Appendix H*): Online news report (from the website [www.eubusiness.com](http://www.eubusiness.com)). Title: *Treaty fight returns to haunt EU summit*

The selection of the three texts was based on Nord's (2005) and Hatim and Mason's (1997) theoretical ideas. Nord (2005) has argued that when selecting texts, several factors should be taken into account, such as authenticity, length, lexical and syntactic complexity and subject matter. According to her, difficulty is not an inherent quality of the text, but depends also on the students' motivation, prior knowledge and level of competence.

Hatim and Mason (1997) distinguished between three main text types along the scale of evaluativeness (the degree of evaluation/argumentation from the author's part) and markedness (the degree of the predictability of intent and the consistency of register): instructional, expository and argumentative, which can be further divided into specific sub-genres. According to them, texts that are less evaluative and less marked place fewer contextual demands on the translator, thus they are ideal for students with less translation experience. The authors also pointed out that in real language use textual values constantly fluctuate, and thus texts normally display features characteristic of more than one text type and keep switching from one type to another. Cases of marked and dynamic language use should be introduced at later stages of training, and can refer to texts with mixed registers, opaque intention, shifts of genre, competing discourses, a more dynamic (expectation-defying) structure or a more marked texture (Hatim and Mason 1997: 194–195). Dealing with these texts requires a more conscious strategy use, and can make students more aware of the dynamic nature of language use, reflected in the complexity and fluidity of text types and textual forms. The three texts selected for the task belong to the first two types. Although they vary in the parameters of evaluativeness, they also pose various challenges for the students in terms of markedness, in particular the first two texts, which can be called hybrid texts, as used by Schäffner and Adab (2001). Since they were produced in the multilingual and multicultural context of the EU, they exhibit certain lexical and grammatical features characteristic of the special EU discourse, making the translation into Hungarian even more challenging. The third genre, the news report, also belongs to the expository type, but it can be placed in the middle of the evaluative line as it expresses the journalist's views (Hatim and Mason 1997: 191). In addition, the differences between the British and Hungarian news genre can make the translation of the news report a challenging task, requiring a high awareness of textual norms and conventions in both the source and the target language. With regard to academic and field-specific lexis, the three texts contain several of the most frequent words on the Academic Word List (Coxhead 2000) and EU-specific words on the EU Word List (Jablonkai 2010a), which means that translating these texts activates students' academic and specialised vocabulary.

Before the actual research exploring students' translations, the students and the teacher, based on Nord's (2005) model, carried out a joint translation-oriented source text analysis, which served to provide initial help for the students by establishing the context of the three texts. To prepare for this, the teacher made a prior analysis, while the students had a week to complete an individual task outside of class, when they were required to do some

background research on the three text types in general and the three actual texts, based on Nord's criteria provided by the teacher. The aim of this activity was to activate and expand students' prior knowledge. This was followed by a class activity, when the students shared and discussed the results of their prior analysis in groups. Finally, the results of the analysis were compared and discussed as a whole class, under the teacher's guidance.

### ***5.3.3.3 Methods of data collection and data analysis***

After an initial joint source-text analysis (preparing the translation task), the students had one week to do the translations at home, based on the translation instructions following the texts (see *Appendices F, G and H*). They were allowed to use any kind of resources and tools. The students were also asked to assess their own performance and give themselves a grade (prior self-assessment). Due to the aim of the study, self-revision and peer assessment were not included in this research although the students' translations were used later for these purposes.

To answer RQ 1, the student translations of these texts were analysed in order to identify the most common translation errors, which resulted from various problems, as categorised by Nord (2005). The corpus used for this analysis consisted of 36 target texts (student translations of the three source texts). To ensure reliability, a colleague of mine performed the same analysis. The coding of the data was performed manually by identifying the translation errors occurring in the student translations.

Finally, in order to answer RQ 2 and 3, semi-structured interviews were conducted with the students to explore their individual translation difficulties, which can explain their problems. Each student was interviewed individually one day after turning in the translations. The interviews were conducted in Hungarian so that the students could express themselves more naturally. The students had the three pieces of source text and their own translations of these texts with the teacher's corrections and feedback. Before reading the teacher's feedback, the students were asked a question related to the perceived level of difficulty of the texts (rated on a scale of 1-4), and they had to justify their own assessment of their translation. After that, they got some time to read the teacher's corrections and feedback, which was followed by an open-ended question exploring their individual difficulties during translation (for the English translation of the interview questions see *Appendix I*). The students were interviewed individually, face to face, and each session lasted about 10-15 minutes. The interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed for the analysis. The coding of the data involved identifying and classifying the recurring difficulties based on Nord's (2005) model.

### 5.3.4 Results and discussion

#### 5.3.4.1 Analysis of the student translations

##### 5.3.4.1.1 Translations of the press release

Table 10 shows the most common translation problems that led to translation errors in the student translations of the press release.

Table 10. The most common translation problems in the student translations of the press release, using Nord's (2005) categories

| TYPE OF PROBLEM<br>IN THE SOURCE TEXT    | DESCRIPTION OF THE PROBLEM<br>IN RELATION TO THE TARGET TEXT                              | FREQUENCY OF<br>RESULTING ERROR IN<br>THE STUDENT<br>TRANSLATIONS (N=12) |
|--|---|--|
| <b>PRAGMATIC PROBLEMS</b>                |   |  |
| <i>on June 1</i> (line 5)                | considering the time of text production when translating the time expression (tense used) | 5  |
| <b>CONVENTION-RELATED PROBLEMS</b>       |   |  |
| formal style                             | keeping the formal style in the Hungarian version   | 5  |
| title (line 1)                           | translating the title conforming to Hungarian genre conventions                           | 8  |
| <i>on June 1</i> (line 5)                | insertion within the sentence   | 3  |
| <i>said</i> (line 11)                    | using more specific reporting verbs in the Hungarian genre conventions                    | 6  |
| <i>thus</i> (line 17)                    | using conjunctions in the Hungarian text (genre conventions)                              | 5  |
| subheading (line 18)                     | the use of direct question in Hungarian press releases (stylistic conventions)            | 5  |
| insertion in the sentence (line 22)      | conforming to Hungarian genre conventions   | 3  |
| subtitle (line 28)                       | conforming to Hungarian genre conventions (subheadings)                                   | 6  |
| <i>however</i> (line 37)                 | using conjunctions in the Hungarian text (genre conventions)                              | 3  |
| reference at the end of the text         | following the Hungarian genre conventions   | 4  |
| <b>LINGUISTIC PROBLEMS - LEXICAL</b>     |   |  |
| <b>Verbs and verb phrases</b>            |   |  |
| <i>foreseen</i> (line 4)                 | conveying the specific meaning of the verb  | 7  |
| <i>cover</i> (line 5)                    | conveying the specific meaning of the verb  | 6  |
| <i>communicate</i> (line 9)              | conveying the meaning of the verb   | 4  |
| <i>safeguarding</i> (line 17)            | conveying the meaning of the verb   | 4  |
| <i>carry</i> (line 21)                   | conveying the meaning of the verb   | 4  |
| <i>eliminate</i> (line 24)               | conveying the meaning of the verb   | 6  |
| <i>administered</i> (line 26)            | conveying the meaning of the verb   | 5  |
| <i>building up</i> (line 24)             | conveying the meaning of the verb   | 4  |
| <b>Nouns and noun phrases</b>            |   |  |
| <i>BPA</i> (line 3)                      | using the acronyms  | 4  |
| <i>industry</i> (line 7)                 | conveying the meaning of the noun   | 8  |
| <i>action</i> (line 8)                   | conveying the meaning of the noun (too general meaning)                                   | 9  |
| <i>directive</i> (line 10)               | translating the EU term   | 3  |
| <i>precautionary principle</i> (line 13) | recognizing the EU term   | 5  |

|   |   |   |
|---|---|---|
| <i>infant formula</i> (line 22)   | translating the technical expression  | 3 |
| <i>system</i> (line 24)   | conveying the meaning of the noun   | 5 |
| <i>European Food Safety Authority (EFSA)</i> (line 31-32)   | translating the EU term (institution name and the acronym)  | 3 |
| <i>grounds</i> (line 32)  | conveying the meaning of the noun   | 8 |
| <i>bodyweight</i> (line 36)   | translating the technical term  | 4 |
| <i>aspect</i> (line 39)   | conveying the meaning of the noun (too general)   | 7 |
| <b>Adjectives</b>   |   |   |
| <i>vulnerable</i> (line 16-17)  | conveying the meaning of the adjective  | 9 |
| <b>Multi-word items</b>   |   |   |
| <i>placing on the market</i> (line 5-6)   | translating the collocation   | 5 |
| <i>withdrawing from the market</i> (line 7)   | translating the collocation   | 4 |
| <i>legal measures</i> (line 10)   | translating the EU-specific collocation   | 3 |
| <i>comply with the provisions</i> (line 10)   | translating the collocation characteristic of legal English   | 4 |
| <i>precautionary principle</i> (line 13)  | recognizing and translating the EU term   | 4 |
| <i>take action</i> (line 16)  | conveying the meaning of the collocation  | 7 |
| <i>delivered its opinion</i> (line 35)  | translating the collocation   | 7 |
| <i>raised some questions</i> (line 37-38)   | translating the collocation   | 6 |
| <i>requires further attention</i> (line 39)   | translating the collocation   | 6 |
| <i>robust data</i> (line 39)  | translating the collocation   | 8 |
| <i>with respect to</i> (line 38)  | translating the lexical bundle  | 4 |
| <b>LINGUISTIC PROBLEMS - SYNTACTIC</b>  |   |   |
| sentence 1 (line 2-3)   | translating the sentence (postmodifications)  | 7 |
| <i>is expected to be completed</i> (line 8)   | translating the double passive structure  | 4 |
| <i>the harmfulness of the exposure of infants to Bisphenol A</i> (line 14-15)                                   | translating the double nominal structure  | 8 |
| <i>plastic materials coming into contact with food intended for children up to three years old</i> (line 30-31) | translating the complex noun phrase (containing two participial clauses functioning as postmodifiers) | 8 |
| <i>the exposure of all groups of the population</i> (line 36-37)  | translating the nominal structure   | 9 |
| <b>TEXT-SPECIFIC PROBLEMS</b>   |   |   |
| <i>panel</i> (line 37)  | finding the reference within the text   | 4 |

Lexical problems prevail in the translation of this text. Some of these problems are related to the translation of EU terms and technical words, while some of them arose from the special use of verbs, which is common in official EU texts. According to Heltai (2005, 2009), Hungarian students often have difficulties with the translation of collocations from English into Hungarian. Even if they are native speakers of Hungarian, they often choose unnatural

collocations. One example of this is the translation of the collocation *placing on the market* (lines 5-6 in the source text). Five students did not manage to find the best Hungarian equivalent (*forgalomba hozatal* [lit. bringing into circulation], three of them translated the English collocation word for word, resulting in an unnatural solution, and two of them used a collocation that was not adequate for the style of the text. Heltai (2005, 2009) has argued that one reason for this may be that students tend to focus on the source language instead of following the target language norms, so the error is often caused by source language interference and not native language competence. He claims that students can sometimes recognise and correct their own mistakes. This particular collocation is actually a term, and its Hungarian equivalent can be found in the IATE online database. This means that students should be encouraged to check the database or other online parallel texts if they are not completely satisfied with their solutions.

Another common lexical problem is the use of words that have a very general meaning. These words are so overused in EU texts that their meaning has become extremely vague. Therefore, they should be replaced with more specific words in the translation. One example from the first text is the word *action* (line 8). Nine students had problems with this word, and again, they simply chose the easiest solution, and translated the word as *akció*. However, this word is not adequate in the Hungarian text for stylistic reasons. Only one student used the strategy of concretization and replaced *action* with the more specific *lépés* (step/move in English). This particular student said that she was first puzzled, but then she checked IATE and some parallel texts to see common solutions Hungarian translators apply.

Most syntactic problems were caused by the frequent use of lengthy sentences with several insertions, complex structures (with multiple postmodification), passive and nominal structures. Sentence 1 (line 1-2) illustrates this problem.

Source text: A ban prohibiting the manufacture in the European Union of baby bottles containing Bisphenol A (BPA) substance enters into force next week, on March 1.

This sentence has two participial clauses and one prepositional clause postmodifying nouns, making the sentence challenging to translate. Seven students had problems with translating this sentence even though they said they had understood the meaning of the original, and they tried to use various strategies such as translating the nominal phrase as a clause. The complexity of the sentence structure made it hard to find an acceptable and adequate solution,



and they often used only one strategy, making the target sentence sound too complicated. However, some students managed to vary their strategies, as the following example illustrates.

Target text: Jövő héten, március 1-jén lép életbe az a tilalom, amely megtiltja az Európai Unióban a biszfenol A (BPA) nevű anyagot tartalmazó cumisüvegek gyártását.

In this example, the student used two good strategies. He translated the noun phrase as a clause, using a relative pronoun (*amely* = which), and applied grammatical transposition, that is he moved the postmodifying clause (*containing bisphenol A*) the left of the head noun (*baby bottles*), to a premodifying position in Hungarian). He repeated the same strategy for the clause preceding the head noun in the main clause (*gyártás* = manufacturing). Students who could not solve this problem adequately mentioned that their solution was indeed unnatural, but they simply could not formulate the sentence in the target language. These students can benefit from more practice in translating complex sentences.

One convention-related problem involved the translation of the title and the subheadings so that they conform to the Hungarian genre conventions. According to these, the title should be concise (never a full sentence), a norm that was not followed by eight students. Another convention-related problem was the use of conjunctions. Original English texts contain more conjunctions than original Hungarian texts, thus they should not be overused in translation. However, students tend to use the same conjunctions in the translation as in the target text due to interference (for example, the use of *however* in line 37). Another feature is the variation of reporting verbs in Hungarian. In English texts, the reporting verbs used in official texts are often restricted to *said* or *wrote*. In original Hungarian texts, however, there is more variation in the use of verbs. Six students decided to keep *said* instead of using a semantically richer verb. Even though this is not a serious error, to improve students' style, subtle differences should also be discussed. Overall, keeping the formal style in the target text was challenging for several students. Finally, the most common pragmatic problem was related to the factor of time. The text contained many time references, however, to interpret these, the students had to consider the time of text production, and the time of translation to be able to find the right tense to be used. Five students had problems with the time references, which resulted in a pragmatic translation error.

### 5.3.4.1.2 Translations of the answer given to the written parliamentary question

In this task, the students had to translate only the answer given to the written parliamentary question. The question was analysed, discussed and translated in class to provide context. Table 11 presents the results of the analysis of the student translations.

Table 11. The most common translation problems in the student translations of the answer given to the written parliamentary question, using Nord's (2005) categories

| TYPE OF PROBLEM<br>IN THE SOURCE TEXT  | DESCRIPTION OF THE PROBLEM<br>IN RELATION TO THE TARGET TEXT               | FREQUENCY OF<br>RESULTING ERROR<br>IN<br>THE STUDENT<br>TRANSLATIONS<br>(N=12) |
|--|--|--|
| <b>CONVENTION-RELATED PROBLEMS</b>   |  |  |
| formal style   | keeping the formal style in Hungarian                                      | 5  |
| heading (line 1)   | conforming to Hungarian genre conventions                                  | 8  |
| <i>Ms Vassiliou</i> (line 1)   | translating the honorific 'Ms' before the name                             | 10   |
| <i>however</i> (line 12)   | using the conjunction in the Hungarian text                                | 3  |
| <b>LINGUISTIC PROBLEMS - LEXICAL</b>   |  |  |
| <b>Verbs and verb phrases</b>  |  |  |
| <i>harvesting</i> (line 13)  | conveying the meaning of the verb  | 10   |
| <i>plucking</i> (line 16)  | conveying the meaning of the verb  | 10   |
| <i>ensure</i> (line 19)  | conveying the meaning of the verb  | 5  |
| <b>Nouns and noun phrases</b>  |  |  |
| <i>animals kept for farming purposes</i><br>(line 15)  | translating the EU term  | 7  |
| <i>Standing Committee</i> (14)   | translating the EU term  | 4  |
| <b>Adjectives</b>  |  |  |
| <i>aware</i> (line 2)  | conveying the meaning of the adjective                                     | 4  |
| <b>Multi-word items</b>  |  |  |
| <i>constitute a case</i> (line 5)  | translating the collocation  | 7  |
| <i>comply with the provisions</i> (line 6)   | translating the collocation containing legal terms                         | 6  |
| <i>share this view</i> (line 7)  | translating the collocation  | 5  |
| <i>has adopted specific national provisions</i> (line 18-19)   | translating the collocation containing legal terms                         | 6  |
| <i>welfare requirements</i> (line 19)  | translating the collocation  | 6  |
| <b>LINGUISTIC PROBLEMS - SYNTACTIC</b>   |  |  |
| <i>feathers being plucked from live geese</i> (line 2-3)   | translation of the passive structure                                       | 5  |
| <i>the provisions of Article 3 of Council Directive 98/58/EC</i> (line 6)                                      | translating the complex noun phrase (containing two prepositional phrases) | 6  |
| <i>Sentence 4</i> (line 9-12)  | translating the long and complex sentence                                  | 8  |
| <i>the practice of harvesting down feathers from live geese is not forbidden by Community law</i> (line 13-14) | translating the passive structure  | 5  |
| <i>the Commission has been informed</i> (line 18)  | translating the passive structure  | 4  |
| <i>from Member States</i> (21-22)  | placing the insertion in the sentence                                      | 3  |

The translation of this particular genre was challenging for the students in many ways. There were several lexical and syntactic problems in the text, which were similar to those faced in the press release. One lexical example is the translation of EU terms, such as *Standing Committee* (line 14) or *animals kept for farming purposes* (line 15). These are EU terms, so they only have one equivalent in Hungarian, which can be easily checked from IATE. In the interviews, when confronted with their errors, the students often said that if they had known that it was an EU term, they would have checked it. This indicates that recognizing specific EU terms is often problematic. Therefore, teachers should provide additional practice in using terminology databases and recognizing EU terms. Another frequent lexical error was connected to technical words. For example, the translation of ‘harvesting down feathers’ (line 13) posed problems for ten students as it was a special use of the verb in this context.

The translation of collocations also caused several problems, particularly of the ones that contained legal terms. One example is the translation of the collocation *comply with the provisions* (line 6). When trying to find the Hungarian equivalent, it is useful to consult EU terminology databases or parallel legal texts, where these terms occur frequently.

Syntactic problems included the translation of complex sentences and phrases, as well as nominal and passive structures. One example is the translation of the practice of the following part: *harvesting down feathers from live geese is not forbidden by Community law* (line 13-14). In Hungarian, the use of passive is not so common, but five students still kept it in their translations, which resulted in an unnatural sentence.

The most frequent convention-related problem was the translation of the title in conformity with Hungarian norms, in particular the translation of the honorific title before the name (*Ms Vassiliou*). In the English text, honorific titles are used, but in Hungarian, these are replaced by the full name. This requires background research from the translator (to find out the full name of the person giving the answer). This issue had not been discussed with the class before, yet two students successfully solved the problem by checking other examples that demonstrated the norm to be followed.

#### 5.3.4.1.3 Translations of the online news report

Table 12 shows the results of the analysis of the student translations of the news report.

Table 12. The most common translation problems in the student translations of the news report, using Nord's (2005) categories

| TYPE OF PROBLEM<br>IN THE SOURCE TEXT                          | DESCRIPTION OF THE PROBLEM IN RELATION TO<br>THE TARGET TEXT | FREQUENCY OF<br>RESULTING ERROR IN<br>THE STUDENT<br>TRANSLATIONS (N=12) |
|--|--|--|
| <b>PRAGMATIC PROBLEMS</b>                                      |  |  |
| communicative function   | preserving the evaluative function of the text               | 10   |
| <b>CONVENTION-RELATED PROBLEMS</b>                             |  |  |
| title (line1)  | conforming to Hungarian genre conventions                    | 10   |
| style  | conforming to Hungarian norms                                | 10   |
| but (line 22)  | using conjunction (their position in the Hungarian sentence) | 4  |
| do not think the proposed new rules go far enough (line 40-41) | changing the negative structure in Hungarian                 | 9  |
| conservative (line 44)   | translating the noun (lexical addition)                      | 3  |
| <b>LINGUISTIC PROBLEMS - LEXICAL</b>                           |  |  |
| <b>Verbs and verb phrases</b>                                  |  |  |
| reining in (line 21)   | figurative language use                                      | 4  |
| enshrined (line 9)   | figurative language use                                      | 9  |
| biting (line 31)   | figurative language use                                      | 7  |
| mull (line 35)   | conveying the meaning of the verb                            | 4  |
| buckling (line 42)   | figurative language use                                      | 5  |
| green-lighting (line 48)                                       | figurative language use                                      | 3  |
| <b>Nouns and noun phrases</b>                                  |  |  |
| a cascade (line 17)  | figurative language use (metaphor)                           | 5  |
| basket-cases (line 18)   | figurative language use (metaphor)                           | 8  |
| softening (line 29)  | conveying the meaning of the noun                            | 8  |
| climbdown (line 38)  | figurative language use                                      | 7  |
| budgetary hawks (line 40)                                      | figurative language use (metaphor)                           | 9  |
| Pandora's Box (line 45)  | figurative language use (metaphor)                           | 3  |
| non-Euro Britain (line 50)                                     | translating the noun phrase                                  | 4  |
| shopping list (line 50)  | figurative language use (metaphor)                           | 4  |
| dilution (line 55)   | figurative language use                                      | 5  |
| <b>Adjectives</b>  |  |  |
| fledgling (line 14)  | figurative language use                                      | 6  |
| spendthrift (line 21)  | conveying the meaning  | 4  |
| heavy-hitting (line 36)  | figurative language use                                      | 5  |
| watered-down (line 36-37)                                      | figurative language use                                      | 7  |
| <b>Multi-word items</b>  |  |  |
| shore up (line 4)  | translating the phrasal verb (figurative language use)       | 8  |
| frightens the life out of some nations (line 12)               | figurative language use                                      | 10   |
| hot theme (line 13)  | translating the collocation                                  | 6  |
| plastered over their own differences (line 15-16)              | collocation – idiomatic use of the phrasal verb              | 7  |
| rescue efforts (line 20)                                       | translating the collocation                                  | 5  |
| caved in (line 22)   | translating the phrasal verb                                 | 6  |
| giving the ESFS eternal life (line 24-25)                      | figurative language use                                      | 6  |
| eurozone partner (line 26)                                     | translating the collocation                                  | 6  |
| deficit offenders (line 30)                                    | translating the collocation                                  | 8  |
| raised hackles (line 32)                                       | figurative language use                                      | 5  |
| getting cold feet (line 43)                                    | idiomatic expression   | 3  |
| popular assent (line 56)                                       | translating the collocation                                  | 5  |

| LINGUISTIC PROBLEMS - SYNTACTIC   |   |   |
|---|---|---|
| Sentence 2 (line 5-7)   | translating the complex sentence  | 4 |
| <i>In efforts...</i> (line 17)  | conveying the meaning of the prepositional phrase                                     | 6 |
| Sentence 7 (line 20)  | present perfect tense (choosing the equivalent Hungarian tense)                       | 4 |
| <i>given concerns in Germany</i> (line 27-28)   | conveying the meaning of the participial phrase                                       | 7 |
| <i>for his part</i> (line 29)   | conveying the meaning of the prepositional phrase                                     | 6 |
| <i>the block of half a million people</i> (line 32)                                       | translating the noun phrase   | 4 |
| <i>the sanctions' climbdown has already been the subject of stern criticism</i> (line 38) | translating the passive structure   | 5 |
| <i>in exchange for green-lighting the Franco-German accord</i> (line 48-49)               | translating the participial phrase within the prepositional phrase                    | 4 |
| <i>an issue requiring popular assent</i> (line 56)  | translating the participial phrase  | 4 |
| TEXT-SPECIFIC PROBLEMS  |   |   |
| <i>a whole of getting "cold feet"</i> (line 43)   | translating the noun phrase, recognizing the reference to an earlier part of the text | 5 |

The most frequent problems in this case were again linguistic in nature (lexical and syntactic). However, this text posed different lexical challenges for the students because of the figurative language use prevalent in the text. The most common problems were related to the special use of lexical items with idiomatic meaning. One example is the phrase *basket cases* (line 18). In order to find an acceptable Hungarian equivalent, students had to know or find out the origin of the meaning of this metaphor. In Hungarian, this metaphor does not exist, so the students had to find other alternatives to express the original meaning. One of the bad solutions was *reménytelen helyzet* (lit.: hopeless situation), which gives something back from the original meaning, but it sounds unnatural in the Hungarian sentence. Even though the students had many similar issues, they still found the text very motivating because it challenged their creativity. Another interesting example is the phrase *popular assent* (line 56). Five students did not recognise that this phrase is actually a synonym of the word *referendum* and in the interview they said that the adjective *popular* misled them as they attached the most common meaning to it, something widely liked, even though the meaning of the whole sentence was strange. To solve this problem, students should be encouraged to check additional meanings of adjectives in monolingual dictionaries.

At the syntactic level, most problems arose from translating complex sentence structures and deciding on the right word order, similar to the other two texts.

Finally, convention-related problems also occurred, mainly in relation to the use of conjunctions and the stylistic differences between the English and Hungarian news genre. One example is the translation of the title itself due to the differences in generic conventions posed problems for many students. In English, articles are often omitted in titles to make them more concise, a phenomenon that never occurs in Hungarian. Many students, however, simply translated the title word for word, and some even omitted articles, which is unacceptable in Hungarian.

#### ***5.3.4.2 Results of the interviews***

To complement the data obtained from the textual analyses, semi-structured interviews were conducted to explore the students' individual difficulties (see *Appendix I*). The first question was related to the perceived difficulty of the texts. The results indicate that students found the translation of the parliamentary question the most challenging (average rating: 3.66), followed by the newspaper article (3.5) and the press release (2.58), and the main reason they cited was the syntactic difficulty of the parliamentary question, which made the text more difficult to comprehend and render into Hungarian, where long and complex sentences are not so common. This difficulty belongs to the category of text-specific difficulties in Nord's model (2005), and suggests that a careful selection of the texts is an important step. Even though this text was challenging syntactically, most students mentioned that it provided good practice for them, and they admitted to have learned a lot. Another interesting comment was that even though the newspaper article was difficult in terms of lexis, most students had enjoyed looking for lexical equivalents more than working on a complex syntactic structure. This suggests that smaller translation units may be easier to deal with at this level, and that lexical problems may be more motivating than syntactic ones.

Several students mentioned the difficulty of using the EU terminology database. They admitted that sometimes they could not find the equivalent of certain English words and expressions in the database. The students were familiar with IATE (Inter-Active Terminology for Europe), which is the EU's official terminology database, but it seems that they need more practice in using it. Some of the difficult words were EU-specific words, but not terms, so the students had to use other resources to find the Hungarian equivalent. All of them had used parallel corpora (other texts written in the same language, for example in Eur-Lex, which they were familiar with), and even though they complained that it was very time-consuming, it proved to be extremely useful. The use of translation tools and resources, particularly parallel corpora, is an important element of translation competence, and it is clear that this component

should be developed even at this level by incorporating tasks focusing on lexical problems and the use of online resources.

Students also highlighted the importance of background knowledge, which belongs to the category of translator-dependent difficulties in Nord's model (2005). In case of the official EU documents, students had to be familiar with the functioning of the EU in order to understand the text in detail. All of them mentioned that the pre-translation text analysis was extremely useful as it provided an opportunity to activate and extend their previous knowledge. In case of the parliamentary question, students also needed to know about the practice of plucking geese and its problematic aspects, which were all discussed in the text analysis prior to translation. Finally, the news report required some background knowledge about the economic crisis in Europe, and some students admitted that they had not known too much about this topic before the group and class discussion. This highlights the importance of the preliminary source-text analysis, when special attention should be paid to presuppositions, which refers to information not present in the text because the author expects the audience to know it. According to the students, discussing background information can reduce difficulties arising from the lack of or limited knowledge, and at the same time, it is an excellent opportunity to apply knowledge acquired in other courses (particularly the EU courses that run parallel to the translation courses), which points to the importance of cross-curricular learning (Kelly 2005).

The importance of planning and monitoring the translation was another recurrent theme arising from the interviews. All the students mentioned that they had to plan the whole process very carefully, especially due to the time limit, and they revised their own texts several times, first comparing it to the source text and then checking and evaluating the target text alone. This suggests that strategic skills are at the centre of translation competence as they monitor and coordinate the whole translation process. The results of the interviews indicate that choosing the most appropriate macro- or micro-level translation strategies clearly requires a contrastive approach, which can undoubtedly increase awareness of linguistic, textual, and cultural conventions in the two languages. Another crucial aspect of strategic competence is evaluating the acceptability of the final product. Based on the results of the interviews, it seems that this skill depends on sensitivity and awareness of target language norms, which suggests that translation is a useful way to develop native language competence. Even though peer revision was not used in this research, some students admitted that they asked friends or family members to read the final text and comment on it, which indicates the significance of peer feedback in translation classes.

All students reported that even though the texts were rather challenging, they found the topics interesting, which helped them keep up motivation during translation. Thus, considering the students' interests in the selection of texts, such as in this research, seems to be an important factor. However, students admitted that when they were faced with a translation problem that they could not solve even after trying hard, they became demotivated. This suggests that teachers should try to avoid texts containing too many difficult problems above the students' competence level.

With regard to time, the students mentioned that they needed the one week to be able to complete the tasks. This suggests the importance of giving students sufficient time to revise their translations to reduce source-text interference. According to the students, self-revision is an extremely useful technique to develop awareness, responsibility, precision, and independence. Since Nord's (2005) approach is based on the premise that translation tasks should be as realistic as possible, the deadline also serves pedagogic purposes. To relieve stress and give students a sense of responsibility, the deadline can be determined through negotiation between the teacher and the students, such as in this case.

Finally, students also mentioned that assessing their own work (giving themselves a grade and justify it) was not always easy, but they all found it a very good idea as in this way they could let the teacher know how much time and effort they spent on completing the assignments, which seems to be the most decisive factor in self-assessment. Even though peer assessment was not included in the research, the students knew that their translations would be openly discussed in class later. In the interview, they mentioned that knowing that the others would see and comment on their work strongly influenced their efforts. This underlines the important role of peers in education.

### **5.3.5 Conclusions**

This study set out to investigate novice translators' typical translation problems and individual difficulties when translating three different texts with topics related to the EU. Owing to the localised nature and limited scope of the study, it is not possible to make generalizations, especially because all students are different and have their own language level, needs and other characteristics. Nonetheless, the study may serve as a model for teachers of translation courses incorporated in foreign language teaching programmes as well as for language instructors who wish to use communicative translation activities in the general foreign language classroom. The research design, including the selection of the texts as well as the



setup of the translation assignment, followed the basic principles of the functional-textual approach to translation, which can be easily integrated into the foreign language classroom, provided the teacher speaks the native language of the students. Thus, the findings of the research contribute not only to translation pedagogy but to foreign language pedagogy as well, further increasing the status of translation as a useful tool in foreign language education.

The functional approach, which includes not only theoretical but also pedagogical ideas, seems to be very useful at this level. Although most of the problems students face tend to be on the level of the register (lexical and syntactic in nature), many of them stem from issues resulting from the interplay between text and context, which is emphasised in the functional approach. In translation, this issue is of paramount importance as the social and cultural context surrounding the source text, including textual norms and conventions, is different from that of the target text. Therefore, as the results of the interviews show, organizing translation tasks on the basis of functionalist principles seems to be an excellent way to sensitise students and direct their attention to the relationship between register and textual conventions, as well as the important role of the social and cultural context in which texts are embedded. This will make them understand that translation is not a mechanical process of replacing words and sentences but an interplay of several other factors related to the context. The results of the research reported here, particularly the results of the interviews, seem to confirm the assumption that a functional approach, which is widely used in professional translator training, also has benefits in translation classes outside the professional context.

There are some practical recommendations arising from the research. As it seems that the students' knowledge of culture-specific norms and conventions has an important impact on the translations they produce, teachers should encourage students to read authentic parallel texts in the target language (even if the target language is their mother tongue) to reduce the interference of the source-text and the conventions of the source language and culture. Second, teachers should devote enough time to an in-depth source text analysis prior to the translation task, involving the extra- and intratextual features of the source text. This can increase students' background knowledge as well as their awareness of the situated nature of text production and reception. Dealing with authentic texts that are selected according to the students' level of competence, background knowledge, needs and interests may raise students' motivation and contribute to the development of their translation and communicative competence. Besides, creating a positive and motivating learning environment, where errors are not stigmatised but serve as a basis for individual improvement is the best way towards

learner autonomy. Finally, by applying the principles of social constructivist learning theories, for example by using group and whole-class activities in the pre-translation text-analysis phase, teachers can significantly increase students' motivation. It is suggested that teachers combine various in-class activities, homework assignments and evaluation techniques to suit the level of the learners and the stage of teaching. The activities and assignments used in a foreign language class can focus on various aspects of translation, such as source text analysis, text comprehension, specific translation problems and translation strategies (grammatical and lexical transfer operations), specialised vocabulary, cohesion, the use of resources, revision (self or peer revision), EU-related background knowledge and the analysis of authentic target texts.

Due to the limitations arising from the localised nature and the scope of the study, the study did not discuss some other important aspects, such as the thematic (topical) structure and the cognitive structuring (rhetorical or macrostructure) of texts. There is very little empirical research done in this area, especially comparing English and Hungarian texts, and the studies available focus mainly on the context of Hungarian professional training (Klaudy 1987b) or Hungarian EFL learners' oral and written discourse in English (Károly 2009). Theoretical research suggests that translation results in changes in these structures, which has important impacts on the text. Therefore, further research focusing on how translation students reproduce the thematic structure and the rhetorical moves present in the source text would provide valuable information for linguistics and translation studies.

## **5.4 Research study 4: Exploring graduates' work experiences and views**

### **5.4.1 Research aims**

The main objective of the questionnaire study is to explore graduates' educational and employment experiences, which can provide useful information when revising and adjusting the content and methodology of translation courses incorporated into foreign language programmes. The questions focus on graduates' further studies and plans as well as on their employment profile, with special emphasis on practices and expectations regarding language mediation and EU topics. In addition, the survey also seeks to capture graduates' perceptions about the usefulness of the EU specialisation module within the English BA programme,

including the EU and translation courses. In order to accomplish its aims, the study addressed the following research questions:

- (1) What are the educational and employment choices of former students of the English BA program following graduation and what are the motivational factors underlying these choices?
- (2) What are graduates' experiences with regard to language mediation (oral or written translation) at the workplace?
- (3) What are graduates' experiences of EU-texts and topics and their oral or written translation at the workplace?
- (4) How do graduates perceive the usefulness of EU English and EU translation courses within the EU specialisation module in light of their subsequent educational and/or work experiences?
- (5) How do graduates perceive the value of the EU specialisation module within the English BA program in the light of their subsequent educational and/or work experiences?

## **5.4.2 Methodology**

### ***5.4.2.1 Setting and participants***

The questionnaire study was conducted at the end of 2012. The participants are full-time and part-time graduates of the three-year bachelor's programme in English Studies at Eszterházy Károly College, Eger, Hungary. The programme started in the academic year 2007/2008, after the introduction of the Bologna Reforms aiming to harmonise European higher education. The BA program included an optional 50-credit EU specialisation module that could be chosen by the students at the end of the first year. The module consisted of the following five subjects: rhetoric and stylistics (two courses), communication skills (three courses), English for EU purposes (six courses covering a wide range of issues related to the working of the EU, including its institutional structure and various policy areas, and a lecture giving a historical overview of European integration), theory and practice of specialised translation (six courses, three lectures focusing on theoretical issues and three seminars providing practice in general and EU translation). The lectures and seminars ran parallel and were designed to complement each other.

At the time of the survey, the total number of students who had completed their English BA studies (including the EU specialisation) was 120. They started the EU specialisation module in the academic years 2007/8, 2008/9 and 2009/10. Out of the total population, 112 participants could be contacted through e-mail, which was the total sample used in the survey. The questionnaire was administered online, and the response rate was 70.5 per cent, with 79 graduates completing and returning the questionnaire. Sixty-six respondents (83.5 per cent) were female and thirteen (16.5 per cent) male, and their age ranged between 22 and 43 (with a mean age of 27.8 years). At the time of the survey, 73 respondents were residing in Hungary, while six of them were living and working abroad (Ireland, Germany, USA, and UK). Their graduation year was between 2009 and 2012. Forty of them completed their studies in the full-time program (50.6 per cent), thirty-five in the part-time program (44.3 per cent), two started in the full-time program but finished in the part-time program, and two started in the part-time program but graduated from the full-time program.

#### ***5.4.2.2 Instruments of data collection and procedures of analysis***

Data was collected through an online questionnaire, which consisted of five questions eliciting background information, followed by thirty-one closed and open-ended questions grouped into three main categories: (1) students' post-graduation educational choices, (2) their employment profile and work experiences regarding translation and EU texts, and (3) their perceptions of the usefulness of the EU and translation courses as part of their English BA studies. The initial version of the questionnaire was given to three experts for review to identify potential problems related to wording, the order of the questions and the use of terms. The pre-test phase also included a focus group discussion with five students studying in the programme at the time of the research (they were not included in the population) to see their understanding of and reactions to the questions, which were then refined on the basis of their feedback. The final version was piloted by seven other students who were studying in the specialisation programme but had not completed their studies yet. The language of the questionnaire was Hungarian, which enabled the respondents to express their ideas in the most natural way (for the English translation, see *Appendix J*). The questionnaire also included sub-questions, thus the number of respondents per question varied throughout the questionnaire. Numerical data was analysed with descriptive statistical methods (calculating frequencies, percentages and means), while in the analysis of narrative data major themes and categories were identified and coded manually.

### 5.4.3 Results and discussion

The first part of the questionnaire focused on the participants' educational choices following graduation from the English bachelor's programme. The first three questions (Q 1-3) aimed to find out the number of graduates who continued their studies after completing their bachelor's degree as well as their concrete study choices (*Table 13*).

*Table 13. Students' further educational choices after graduation*

| <b>Q 1 Did you continue your studies after receiving your BA degree?</b> | <b>Frequency<br/>(n = 79)</b> | <b>Percentage</b> |
|--|-------------------------------|-------------------|
| Yes, in a professional translator and interpreter training programme     | 4                             | 5.0%              |
| Yes, in a different type of programme                                    | 42                            | 53.2%             |
| No   | 33                            | 41.8%             |

Altogether forty-six respondents (58.2%) decided to continue their studies after getting their bachelor's degree, including four respondents who enrolled in professional translator and interpreter training programmes at various institutions (one student at Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest, one at Kodolányi János College, Székesfehérvár, and two at the University of Miskolc). The institutional choices of those who continued their studies but not in professional translator and interpreter training include different programmes in various institutions, mainly in Hungary. The most popular choice seems to be master's programmes related to their BA studies. Twenty-six of the respondents decided to stay in Eszterházy Károly College in the master's programmes in English with teaching qualifications or in the American Studies master's programme. Seven respondents continued their studies in the English Teacher and American Studies master's degree programmes at Eötvös Loránd University, one in the master's programme in English studies at the University of Debrecen, and one in the same programme at the University of Szeged. The rest of the answers indicate that programmes related to business and tourism were also popular choices, such as Tourism Manager or Cultural Heritage Studies at Eszterházy Károly College, International Business Administration at the College of Szolnok, and International Relations at the Budapest Business School (each chosen by one student).

Question 4 was targeted only at those who continued their studies, but not in professional translator and interpreter training, and those who decided not to study further. The question was related to their plans and motives to enrol in professional translator and interpreter training programmes in the future. Based on their responses (*Table 14*), one-fifth

of this group (fifteen people) is planning to undertake such studies, and almost half of the group (thirty-five people) did not rule out the possibility.

*Table 14. Graduates' plans to pursue further studies in professional translator training*

| <b>Q 4 Are you planning to enrol in a professional translator and interpreter training programme in the future?</b> | <b>Frequency<br/>(n = 75)</b> | <b>Percentage</b> |
|---|-------------------------------|-------------------|
| Yes   | 15                            | 20.0%             |
| No  | 25                            | 33.3%             |
| Maybe   | 35                            | 46.6%             |

The main reasons given as justification for the responses were related mainly to the usefulness of this qualification. Several respondents think that official qualification means better and more job opportunities. A recurring comment was that the situation of teachers is very uncertain in Hungary, which forces teachers to seize any other available job opportunity. Translation is usually seen as an attractive second job, which can be done even alongside teaching. Four respondents mentioned that they had already done translation and/or interpretation work informally, but they felt they needed an official qualification. In their opinion, this would also help them to improve their skills and make them a better and quicker translator. The attractive and challenging nature of translation – both as an activity and as a profession – was also frequently mentioned. Twenty-five people, however, responded that they did not plan to pursue further studies in translation, and cited reasons such as lack of interest, motivation, abilities, financial resources, and time. Those who were working as teachers emphasised that they were more interested in teaching, or they felt they would not need this skill in their current job. Finally, three respondents mentioned that they were planning to work abroad in the future, and felt that translation would not be a useful skill outside Hungary.

The next group of questions (Q 6-8) focused on the respondents' total length of work experience, their current employment status, and their employment history after receiving their English bachelor's degree. The responses indicate heterogeneity in terms of the total length of work experience (*Table 15*).

*Table 15. Total length of graduates' work experience*

| <b>Q 6 Altogether how many years of work experience do you have?</b> | <b>Frequency<br/>(n = 79)</b> | <b>Percentage</b> |
|--|-------------------------------|-------------------|
| More than 10 years   | 13                            | 16.5%             |
| 5-10 years   | 15                            | 19.0%             |
| 1-5 years  | 32                            | 40.5%             |
| I don't have work experience   | 19                            | 24.0%             |

About one third of the respondents had more than five years of work experience, including fifteen people having worked for five to ten years, and thirteen people who have spent more than ten years on the labour market. Most probably, this group includes those who completed their English bachelor's degree in the part-time programme, and were working before and/or during their studies. Furthermore, about two-fifths of the respondents had one to five years of work experience, including most likely younger students who studied in the full-time programme although some people from younger age groups also preferred to study part-time. Finally, almost a quarter of the respondents (nineteen people) did not have any work experience. Presumably, these people include three groups: those who decided to continue their studies after getting their bachelor's degree, those who did not wish to study further but could not find a job, and those young women who went on maternity leave right after obtaining their bachelor's degree.

The next question (Q 7) was targeted only at those who had some work experience (altogether sixty respondents), and inquired about their current employment status. The majority of them (fifty-three people, 88.3%) were employed at the time of the survey, while seven (11.6%) had previous work experience, but were not employed when they completed the questionnaire.

The next question (Q 8) was also addressed to this group (altogether sixty people), and aimed to find out what types of employment they had had (including their current job) since receiving their English bachelor's degree. The respondents mentioned a wide variety of occupations, which are listed in *Table 16*.

*Table 16. Graduates' employment experiences after obtaining their English BA degree*

| <b>Q 8 What kind(s) of job(s) have you had since getting your English BA at EKF?</b> | <b>Frequency<br/>(n = 60)</b> |
|--|-------------------------------|
| Teaching (including subjects other than English as a foreign language)               | 28                            |
| Office work and administration   | 22                            |
| Catering and tourism   | 9                             |
| Marketing /sales   | 6                             |
| Customer service   | 4                             |
| Personal services (housekeeping, child-care)   | 4                             |
| Translation and/or interpretation  | 3                             |
| Healthcare   | 1                             |

Based on the responses, teaching (including other subjects as well) seems to be the most commonly chosen occupation, including jobs in public schools and private language schools. It has to be noted that some of the respondents studied in the part-time programme, and already had another (sometimes teaching) degree. The next most frequent occupations are

office/administrative jobs and work in the field of catering and tourism. Jobs related to marketing and sales were also quite typical, with six participants citing them. Other occupations listed include jobs in the field of marketing/sales, customer service, personal services, translation and/or interpretation, and healthcare. It is interesting to see that even though an English BA degree does not qualify graduates to translate, three of them mentioned that they had already worked in this field although they did not specify these jobs in detail. Overall, the wide variety of jobs mentioned in response to this question indicates that there are several employment options available for a graduate with an English BA. Many of these jobs require a good command of the foreign and the native language, but several other practical skills are needed in these jobs, such as good oral and/or written communication skills.

The next seven questions (Q 9-15) were focusing on the participants' experiences with oral or written language mediation at the workplace (these questions were targeted only at those who already had some work experience). The first question aimed to find out if the participants had to do oral or written translation in their work. The results (*Table 17*) indicate that language mediation is a frequently required task at the workplace.

*Table 17. Language mediation tasks at the workplace*

| <b>Q 9 Have you ever had to do written language mediation (translation) or oral language mediation (interpretation) tasks at the workplace?</b> | <b>Frequency<br/>(n = 60)</b> | <b>Percentage</b> |
|---|-------------------------------|-------------------|
| Yes   | 52                            | 86.6%             |
| No  | 8                             | 13.3%             |

Interestingly, the number of those who had already had to use either written or oral language mediation tasks is very high (fifty-two). This indicates that language mediation skills are expected in several jobs. The next question (Q 10) was addressed to those respondents whose had to use language mediation (written or oral translation) in their jobs (n=52), and aimed to find out how frequently they had to do language mediation tasks from English into Hungarian or Hungarian into English. It is clear from the responses that language mediation skills are very often (15 people) or often (34 people) required also in non-translation/interpretation jobs.

The next question (Q 11) focused on the types of language mediation that are most typically required at the workplace with regard to the channel. Interestingly, half of the respondents indicated that they had had to use both written and oral mediation, while one third of the respondents said they had to do only or usually written translation, and about a fifth of them mentioned only and usually oral translation (*Table 18*).



Table 18. Channel of language mediation tasks at the workplace

| Q 11 What type of language mediation do you usually do? | Frequency<br>(n = 52) | Percentage |
|---|-----------------------|------------|
| Only oral   | 2                     | 3.8%       |
| Usually oral  | 7                     | 13.5%      |
| Only written  | 9                     | 17.3%      |
| Usually written   | 8                     | 15.4%      |
| Both equally  | 26                    | 50.0%      |

The results indicate that both oral and written language mediation tasks are expected at the workplace. The frequency of oral language mediation tasks is particularly interesting because oral skills were not given such a strong emphasis in the translation courses during their studies. The responses to the question related to the direction of translation (Q 12) indicate that translation from English into Hungarian is more common than from Hungarian into English. A little more than half of the respondents mentioned that they had to translate only from English into Hungarian (28 people), while the rest of the respondents (24 people) reported that from English into Hungarian is the most usual direction, which, however, implies that occasionally they also have to translate from Hungarian into English.

The next question focused on written translation, and aimed to explore the most common topics that the respondents had to translate in the workplace. The results indicate that they have or had to translate a wide variety of subject areas, which are listed in *Table 19*.

Table 19. The most common domains encountered in written translation

| Q 13 What are the most common text topics that you have/had to translate in a written form (e.g., economics, natural sciences)? | Frequency<br>(n = 52) |
|---|-----------------------|
| Business and economics  | 22                    |
| Culture and tourism   | 8                     |
| General work-related topics   | 7                     |
| Technological sciences  | 7                     |
| Information technology  | 5                     |
| Law   | 5                     |
| Education   | 5                     |
| Arts  | 2                     |
| Natural sciences  | 2                     |
| History   | 2                     |
| Agriculture (viniculture)   | 2                     |

The most common subject area mentioned is business and economics, followed by culture and tourism, general work-related topics, and topics in the field of technological sciences. Other domains mentioned were IT, law, education, EU, arts, natural sciences, history and agriculture. Besides, several participants mentioned that they often had to deal with EU-

specific terms when translating texts with various topics. It seems that incorporating texts with topics belonging to the most frequently mentioned domains can provide useful practice for students because in their future job there is a high chance that they would meet similar texts. In addition, there are several EU-texts dealing with these topics, which could also be used.

The next question (Q14) was related to the genre of the texts that the respondents had to translate in writing. A summary of the responses is presented in *Table 20*.

*Table 20. The most typical genres encountered in written translation*

| <b>Q 14 What are the most common genres that you have/had to translate in a written form (e.g., formal letter)?</b> | <b>Frequency (n = 52)</b> |
|---|---------------------------|
| formal e-mail   | 22                        |
| CV  | 18                        |
| formal letter   | 15                        |
| letter of reference   | 10                        |
| cover letter  | 9                         |
| funding application   | 8                         |
| minutes   | 7                         |
| contract  | 6                         |
| financial report  | 6                         |
| letter of complaint   | 6                         |
| certificate of employment   | 5                         |
| newspaper article   | 5                         |
| product description   | 4                         |
| business plan   | 4                         |
| company news  | 3                         |
| letter of authorization   | 3                         |
| manual  | 3                         |
| internal rules and regulations  | 3                         |
| bill of lading  | 2                         |
| school prospectus   | 2                         |
| brochure  | 2                         |

Responses indicate that the participants often have to translate formal business documents at the workplace. Therefore, it seems to be beneficial to incorporate these genres as much as possible in the translation courses and focus on the differences between the Hungarian and English genre conventions, including the specific lexical items typically occurring in these texts. Most of these genres are also commonly used by EU institutions (e.g., formal letters, minutes, contracts, internal rules and regulations), or have EU-related topics (e.g., newspaper article, brochure).

The next question focused on the most typical situations in which the respondents had to translate orally. The responses to this question are summarised in *Table 21*.

*Table 21. The most typical oral translation situations*

| <b>Q 15 What are the most common situations in which you have/had to do oral translation?</b> | <b>Frequency<br/>(n = 52)</b> |
|---|-------------------------------|
| at a formal meeting with foreign visitors to the company                                      | 14                            |
| on a sightseeing tour organised for foreign visitors  | 8                             |
| dealing with customers  | 7                             |
| at a formal speech given by foreign visitor from the upper management                         | 5                             |
| at a formal meeting with foreign visitors to the school                                       | 3                             |
| at a job interview (between the applicant and the hiring manager)                             | 1                             |
| at a conference   | 1                             |
| interpreting for a foreign student about school issues  | 1                             |
| interpreting for the native speaker in the school   | 1                             |
| at an exhibition  | 1                             |

Results indicate that the most typical oral translation situations are formal meetings, when a foreign person visits the company. Among the responses, we can find other formal situations related to business communication, but oral translation seems to be quite frequent also in schools. English teachers are particularly often asked to act as interpreters on these occasions even if the foreign visitors are not English since English is most probably used as the language of communication between non-native speakers. The naïve belief that people who speak a foreign languages can easily interpret seems to be still widespread in Hungary. Therefore, English BA students can definitely benefit from training this special skill through oral translation activities incorporated into translation classes.

The next group of questions (Q 16-25) was related to English or Hungarian EU-related texts or topics at the workplace, more specifically the written translation of texts and the oral translation of topics related to the EU. The first question (Q16) aimed to find out if the respondents have met written texts that had EU topics. It is important to emphasise that the question included not only official EU documents but also any text that had an EU-related topic. The responses indicate that a little less than half of the participants have had to work with EU texts, while sixty per cent have not encountered such texts at the workplace (*Table 22*).

*Table 22. Experiences with English or Hungarian written EU texts at the workplace*

| <b>Q 16 Have you ever had to deal with English or Hungarian written texts with EU-related topics?</b> | <b>Frequency<br/>(n = 60)</b> | <b>Percentage</b> |
|---|-------------------------------|-------------------|
| Yes   | 24                            | 40.0%             |
| No  | 36                            | 60.0%             |

The next question was targeted at those who have met EU-related written texts, altogether twenty-four participants, and enquired about the frequency of working with these texts. Nine

of those surveyed indicated that they had to work with written EU-texts very often, while fifteen of them marked ‘often’. One respondent who works as a teacher mentioned that he or she has met EU-related texts often when preparing students for language exams.

Question 18 focused on the subject matter of these written EU-texts. Responses show that participants have met a wide variety of topics (*Table 23*), but the two most common topics are related to various EU institutions and EU policies.

*Table 23. The most typical topics of written EU texts*

| <b>Q 18 What is/was the topic of these written EU-texts (e.g., economics)?</b> | <b>Frequency<br/>(n = 24)</b> |
|--|-------------------------------|
| EU institutions and their general function                                     | 7                             |
| Various EU policies  | 7                             |
| Economics  | 5                             |
| EU legislation   | 5                             |
| EU foreign and regional policy (including Hungary)                             | 4                             |
| Social policy  | 3                             |
| Education  | 3                             |
| Environmental protection   | 2                             |
| Tourism, culture   | 2                             |

In response to the next question (Q 19), which was related to the genre of these texts, twelve participants indicated that they have encountered EU legislative texts (laws), six of them mentioned general texts for teaching purposes (mainly about the structure of the EU, its institutions and the main EU policies), five respondents listed newspaper articles and four of them applications for EU funding. With regard to the most typical language of these texts (Q 20), out of the twenty-four respondents, sixteen mentioned that they had met both English and Hungarian EU-texts, and eight of them indicated that the typical language was English.

The next question (Q 21) focused on the written translation of EU-related texts. Out of the twenty-four respondents, ten replied that they had translated such texts in the workplace, while fourteen gave a negative response (*Table 24*).

*Table 24. The occurrence of written translation of texts that had EU-related topics*

| <b>Q 21 In your work, have you ever had to translate EU-related texts in writing?</b> | <b>Frequency<br/>(n = 24)</b> | <b>Percentage</b> |
|---|-------------------------------|-------------------|
| Yes   | 10                            | 41.6%             |
| No  | 14                            | 58.3%             |

With regard to the frequency of this task, explored in Q 22, two of the ten respondents mentioned that they had to translate texts with EU topics very often although this was typical

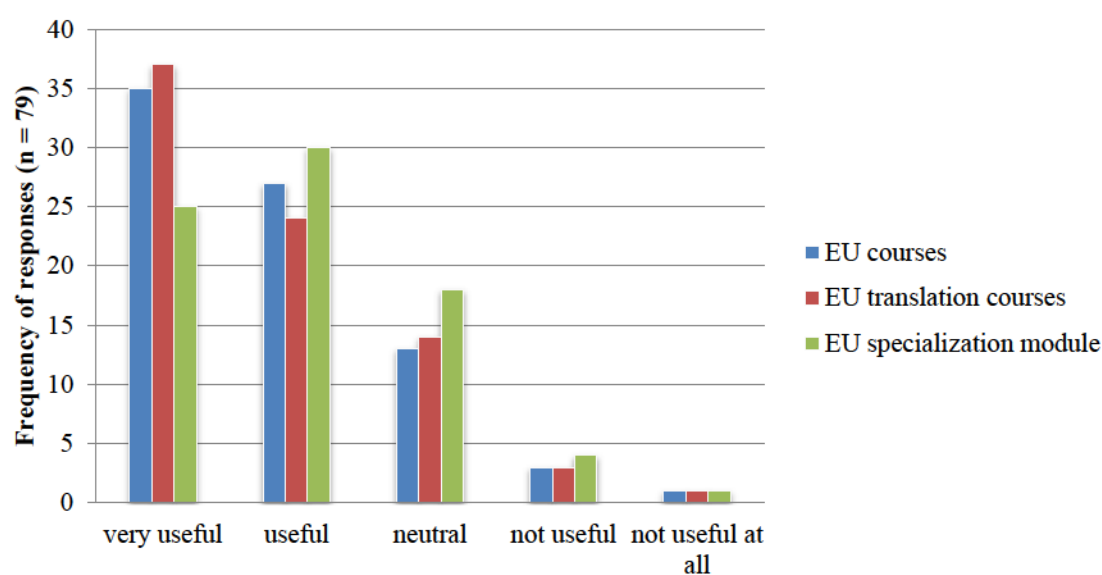
only in translation jobs. However, eight respondents, working in other jobs, indicated that they often had to translate EU-related texts in writing.

The next two questions (Q 23 and 24) aimed to explore the most typical text genres and topics in the case of the translation of EU-related texts. The most common genres that the respondents had reported included EU legislation, official EU documents and official non-EU documents with EU-related topics, while the most frequent text topics mentioned were related to law, economics, education, social policy and tourism.

The next three questions (Q 25-26) focused on the oral translation of EU-related issues. It seems that this is not a typical language mediation task at the workplace as out of the sixty respondents, only one encountered this situation as part of his/her interpretation job. The topic of the oral translation was the EU's policy on environmental protection.

The last four questions (Q 27-31) aimed to explore graduates' perceptions about the usefulness of the English for EU purposes (EU 1-6) and the EU translation courses. The responses given to questions 27, 29 and 31 are summarised in *Table 25*.

*Table 25. Graduates' responses concerning their perceptions about the usefulness of EU courses, translation courses and the EU specialisation module within the English BA programme*



Regarding the usefulness of the courses and the specialisation programme, the responses seem to indicate that most graduates find them very useful or useful, particularly the EU courses and the EU translation courses, while the overall perception about the usefulness of the whole EU specialisation programme is a little lower. When analysing the justifications given by the participants, six main themes emerged. One group mentioned that these courses provided them with useful and transferable knowledge, which is indispensable in Hungary, being a

member state of the EU. Therefore, the knowledge related to the structure of the EU and the EU institutions as well as their functions seems to be extremely valuable. The usefulness of EU vocabulary was another recurring theme, particularly the benefits of learning specialised vocabulary in the field of business and economics. Another group of participants mentioned that these courses proved to be beneficial for their overall English language competence. In addition, two respondents indicated that it was very good that they could write their BA thesis on EU-related issues, for which these courses were indispensable. Finally, according to a group of respondents, the EU courses provided an excellent foundation for those interested in professional translation and/or interpretation.

One justification given for the less positive responses was that even though the EU courses were interesting and generally useful, they had not had to use this knowledge during their work. A few respondents would have preferred more translation and fewer general EU courses, while one according to one respondent, the EU courses did not go deeply enough due to the limited number of hours. One respondent mentioned that some of the topics discussed in the classes were not particularly interesting for him or her, and one respondent would have liked more focus on EU funding applications. Finally, two respondents said that more student-centred, practical and interactive teaching methods in all the courses would have been more motivating.

Regarding the usefulness of the EU translation courses, the responses were more diverse. The most general comments were related to the benefits of developing general and specific vocabulary, gaining useful and relevant knowledge about the EU through translating various texts, and improving their translation skills, which are very often required at the workplace. Some respondents mentioned that the translation courses helped them to develop their foreign language competence in general, as well as to express their ideas in Hungarian more accurately and appropriately. Similar to the EU courses, several respondents mentioned that the translation courses provided a solid basis for continuing their studies in professional translation and/or interpretation. A few respondents emphasised that translation should be part of every language teaching programme as it is the most practical and transferable skill. Some comments highlighted the benefits of getting detailed and motivating feedback in various forms, which helped them to develop precision and the skill of using of online resources. Finally, a few students found the translation theory classes particularly interesting as they gained more insight into translation as an activity. Some of the negative responses included comments related to the lack of personal interest in translation. Another common reason for a negative response was that the particular respondent had not had to use translation in their

workplace. Another complaint was that in spite of the high level and the difficulty of the courses, they did not get any official certificate at the end of the specialisation module. Moreover, two respondents mentioned that they would have liked to deal with some more general texts as well as do more oral translation activities during the courses. Finally, some respondents mentioned that the number of hours was too low, so the translation courses could only give them a general introduction to translation. These remarks could provide guidance for the teachers of the courses to adjust the content and the teaching methods to meet students' various needs and expectations, and thus making the whole specialisation programme more relevant and attractive for the students.

#### **5.4.4 Conclusions**

The results of the questionnaire survey can provide valuable information for teachers and course designers when re-examining the content and teaching methods of the ESP (EU) and translation courses in the EU specialisation program offered within the English BA. The findings can help to meet both students' and employers' needs and expectations, which can make the EU specialisation programme – and the whole English BA – more relevant and attractive for the students, particularly for those who do not continue their studies. According to the results, this group is rather large, which makes it crucial to converge the perspectives of students and the job market. In the jobs that these students typically have, good communication skills (both in the foreign language and in the mother tongue) appear to be essential as well as the use of formal style. Furthermore, since translation – both oral and written – seems to be a common practice in the workplace, communicative translation activities within the English BA programme can provide authentic learning experiences, through which a number of other practical and transferable skills can be developed. It seems that the translation of formal written genres which are related to working life or the EU is also extremely useful, as well as general oral translation activities. The findings also showed that professional translator/interpreter training is an attractive study option for students with an English BA, which emphasises the significance of the undergraduate phase.

Since the topic is related to the broader discussion on the role of translation in foreign language learning and teaching, the results of this localised study have wider practical and theoretical implications. The findings suggest that translation and EU texts have a useful role in the modern foreign language degree. Since empirical research at the interface of translation studies and foreign language pedagogy is still scarce, similar investigations are needed in the

future, which can offer new insights for both academic disciplines. This could help to more efficiently exploit communicative translation in foreign language learning and teaching.

## **5.5 Research study 5: Exploring teachers' instructional practices and views<sup>13</sup>**

### **5.5.1 Research aims**

Teachers' views on various aspects of translation strongly influence their teaching practices, including such important issues as the selection of texts, the type of activities used and methods of assessment (e.g., Hatim and Mason 1997, Kelly 2005). These views, however, are also shaped by the specific educational context in which the course is embedded. The survey was targeted only at those teachers who were teaching translation courses in EU specialisation modules offered within the English BA programme and set out to explore teachers' experience, teaching methods and underlying views regarding translation and EU-texts. To achieve these overall aims, the study addressed the following research questions:

- (1) What kind of tasks and classroom activities do course teachers use?
- (2) What are the most typical genres and topics of the texts selected for instruction?
- (3) What criteria do teachers use when selecting these texts?
- (4) What types of EU-texts do teachers use?
- (5) Do teachers use Hungarian texts? If so, what types of texts and what activities?
- (6) What characterises teachers' assessment practices?
- (7) What experience do teachers have regarding foreign language learners' (novice translators) most typical problems, difficulties, and errors when translating?
- (8) What are teachers' views on the importance of a preliminary needs analysis survey in translation courses?
- (9) What are teachers' views on the role of the learners' level of foreign and native language competence in translation?
- (10) What do teachers think about the role of translation within the English BA programme?

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<sup>13</sup> This section of the dissertation contains text that has been accepted for publication in the Hungarian electronic journal *Working Papers in Language Pedagogy (WoPaLP)*.



## 5.5.2 Methods

### 5.5.2.1 Participants and setting

At the time of the research, two BA programmes offered elective EU specialisation modules: Eszterházy Károly College (EKF) in Eger and Eötvös Loránd University (ELTE) in Budapest. In these two institutions, altogether four teachers were teaching translation courses in the EU specialisation module, one at EKF, and three at ELTE. The courses within the English BA in ELTE included *Translation in the EU* and *Translating Legal and Business Documents of the EU*, which ran for a semester, while in EKF, three translation courses were offered in three subsequent semesters (*Theory and Practice of Specialised Translation 1-3*) and ran parallel with the lectures. The online questionnaire was sent to four teachers teaching the above courses, out of whom three completed and returned the questionnaire. The average length of these teachers' teaching experience in Hungarian higher education was 16.3 years, with two of them having been taught for twenty, and one of them for nine years altogether. On average, they have been teaching translation for eleven years (with ten, eighteen, and five years respectively). All three of them held a doctoral degree in linguistics. Furthermore, even though only one of them had a formal translation qualification (in the field of social sciences), all three of them possessed extensive experience in translation, and two of them also in interpretation.

### 5.5.2.2 Instruments of data collection and methods of analysis

Data was collected through an online questionnaire, which comprised six questions eliciting background information, followed by twenty-four open-ended and two closed questions. The items can be grouped into eight subcategories: instructional methods (including types of activities), text selection, assessment practices, the importance of formal qualification and translation experience, experience concerning students' most typical problems and difficulties, the role of foreign and native language competence in translation, views on initial needs analysis, and the role of translation within the English BA programme. The initial version of the questionnaire was given to three experts for review (practicing teachers of translation and EU English). They were asked to identify potential problems related to the wording and the order of the questions as well as the content of the questionnaire, which was revised based on their feedback. The language of the questionnaire was Hungarian since the native language of these teachers was Hungarian (for the English translation, see *Appendix K*).

### 5.5.3 Results and discussion

#### 5.5.3.1 *Instructional methods*

The first question focused on the types of activities that teachers used in their classroom practices, including such aspects as the length of texts (whole texts or excerpts), the mode of translation (written or oral), and the place where tasks were completed (in or outside of the classroom). The answers suggest that the teachers use both whole texts and excerpts in their teaching, depending on the original length of the text. It is important to note that some EU-texts (such as parliamentary questions or communications), are short (1-2 pages), while others can be rather lengthy (particularly legislations). Using short passages from the original text seems to be more typical at the beginning of the course and at lower levels (if the teacher teaches more than one course), but are also preferred if the original text would be too long. Using authentic whole texts is a central principle in both professional translator training and modern communicative approaches in foreign language learning and teaching, but it seems that at lower levels, long texts do not always work. Therefore, direct translation experience and a sound theoretical knowledge might be essential when teachers have to adapt texts for instructional purposes.

Only one teacher mentioned oral translation as a typical classroom activity, which is interesting, considering that oral translation and mediation are quite common in real life. For example, Feketéné Silye's (2004) research focusing on English for Specific Purposes (ESP), which included the analysis of employers' and employees' needs, pointed out that 82.4 percent of young employees thought that it would have been useful to do (more) oral translation in foreign language classes. Similarly, several other Hungarian studies emphasised that oral translation and mediation tasks are often required in language-related jobs (e.g., Heltai 1995, Major 2000, Sturcz 2003, 2010).

With regard to the place where students complete the translation tasks, all three teachers mentioned that if students had to do the translation at home, it was always followed by class discussion focusing on problems and their solutions. This suggests that the teachers adopt a process-oriented approach, which is common in contemporary learner-centred methodologies. Another typical in-class activity is a comprehensive source-text analysis, which helps students prepare the translation at home. This particular activity is advocated by functional-textual approaches (e.g., Károly 2008, Nord 2005) and is very popular in professional translator training.

A wide range of other activities was also listed, such as sight translation, summarizing the text in the target language, and memory or vocabulary-related monolingual activities. The variety of activities used in translation classes points to the fact that the classes are not typically used for the actual translation, but mainly in the pre- or post-translation phase, using various activities related to such elements of translation competence as the language sub-competence (ranging from the level of the word to the level of the communicative situation), the use of resources and tools, background knowledge, translation strategies (transfer operations) and such social skills as cooperation and collaboration. This suggests that even though this context is different from professional translator and interpreter training, a competence-based view of translation (e.g., Göpferich 2009, PACTE 2009) lends itself to an array of targeted and motivating activities.

The second question intended to find out how teachers perceive the benefits of the activities they used in their teaching. All three respondents referred to the development of translation skills in the narrow sense (i.e. transfer skills), particularly problem-solving skills (c.f. Pym's [2003] concept of minimalist translation). Thus, in this particular pedagogical context, the teachers view translation not merely as a tool that aids foreign language learning, but as a useful skill in itself. Another common theme emerging from the answers was the positive effects of group-work, collaboration, and independent work, as well as teacher and peer feedback, which are important principles in not only learner-centred foreign language pedagogies but also modern professional translator and interpreter training.

### ***5.5.3.2 Text selection***

The next group of questions (Questions 3–15) focused on the selection and use of texts for instruction. The first four questions were related to the genre and the topic of the texts as well as to the selection criteria. The responses indicate that in addition to general texts, the teachers tend to use a wide range of specialised genres, such as reports, formal letters, newspaper, treaties, studies, agreements, EU press releases, formal speeches and welcome addresses, which typically occur in business and/or EU contexts. One respondent also mentioned the importance of sequencing the texts, for which first-hand translation experience and theoretical knowledge are essential. With regard to the subject matter of these texts, a number of different topics were listed, particularly political, business, legal, cultural, educational and environmental issues. One teacher reported that these topics were selected on the basis of the students' interests, while other respondents highlighted the importance of particular

translation problems present in the texts (including problems arising from cultural differences), as well as difficulties related to background knowledge and text comprehension.

The next three questions inquired whether the teachers used texts that were not official EU documents but had EU-related topics. Two teachers use authentic news texts that deal with various EU topics, but one of them also mentioned short passages from textbooks written by experts (particularly dealing with topics related to EU law). Even though translating news texts may not be so typical in real life (except for journalists), it can be a useful activity for several reasons. They differ from official EU documents not only because the discourse community producing them and the target audience are different, but also because they have a different overall communicative function. News texts are primarily informative although evaluation and persuasion are also often present, which is manifested at various levels of the text, particularly in the lexis (the use of informal and idiomatic words and expressions, phrasal verbs and evaluative adjectives). Besides, differences in source and target language norms and conventions play a crucial role in translation. Thus, translating news texts is a challenging but extremely useful task.

The following question aimed to find out what the teachers think about the main advantages of using texts that have EU content. According to the teachers, students seem to be generally interested in EU issues most probably because they often encounter these issues in everyday life. Another reason that the teachers cited was that many of these students are planning to work in institutions or organizations whose activity is directly or indirectly related to the EU (or even in EU institutions), where knowledge of EU issues and the specific language of the EU are of utmost importance. From a linguistic perspective, EU texts are particularly suitable for illustrating the importance of pragmatic aspects of communication as well as issues related to using English as a *lingua franca* in Europe.

Concerning the use of Hungarian texts, only two teachers mentioned that they used them, mostly the same genres and topics as in the case of English language texts. For example, sometimes they used the official Hungarian translation of the English texts, which formed the basis of a contrastive analysis task. According to one respondent, Hungarian texts without an official English translation create an authentic communicative situation, which can be extremely motivating for students. This could be exploited much more in translation (and foreign language) classes as meaningful learning experiences are often cited as the driving force of learning, often missing from classrooms in instructed settings (e.g., Sampbell, McDowell and Montgomery 2013).

With regard to the direction of translation, two teachers mentioned that translating from English into Hungarian (direct translation) is more typical in real life, which, however, may only be true if the students study further and become professional translators or interpreters. Inverse translation has received more attention in recent years both in foreign language pedagogy and translation studies (e.g., Adab 2005, Cook 2010, Stewart 2008) even though in professional translator training it is not a typical direction. According to Campbell (1998), translation from the native into the foreign language is an inevitable practice in today's multicultural contexts, which suggests that it has a useful role in communicative translation courses.

Finally, the teachers also emphasised the benefit of improving native language skills by using Hungarian texts. As one of them put it, it is not enough to be a native speaker to be able to produce a coherent and well-written text. According to the teachers, translation provides an extremely useful opportunity for students to develop their native language competence (including their writing skills) and raise their awareness of their own language and culture (c.f. Bergen 2009, Kim 2011, Klaudy 2001, Vermes 2003), which may even be the only opportunity for students in foreign language degree programmes. Klaudy (2004a) authentic translation activities can help students become more confident, conscious, and reflective language users. According to Vermes (2003), translation also develops students' writing skills in their native language. He argued that reading parallel texts is a useful supplementary activity, which can help students produce appropriate translations conforming to native language norms and conventions.

### ***5.5.3.3 Assessment***

The next group of questions focused on the teachers' assessment practices, with the first question exploring various methods of assessment. All three teachers seem to use teacher and peer assessment both orally and in writing, but one of them underlined the importance of group and self-assessment as well. According to the teachers, assessment serves two main purposes. First, it guides students by showing them their strengths and weaknesses, but one teacher also pointed out that assessment should always be balanced. This means that it should not focus only on problems and errors since too much criticism could evoke negative feelings. It was also stressed by one respondent that the primary aim is not to assess students' performance but to give them feedback on their performance and progress, which provides valuable opportunities for them to detect, understand and correct their mistakes and errors. Thus, in line with modern approaches, continuous and constructive feedback is thought to

direct students' attention to the process of translation instead of focusing on the final product. Another role of assessment, particularly in the case of the more learner-centred forms (which use continuous, formative assessment as well as peer feedback and self-assessment), is to increase students' sense of responsibility during translation. Translation is essentially a conscious decision-making process, and often there is not only one acceptable solution. All three teachers pointed out that different solutions (including both creative and unacceptable ones) are always discussed in class. If students have the opportunity to compare their translations with each other and justify their decisions, it can raise their awareness of the translation process and can develop critical thinking and self-evaluation skills as well (c.f. Fischer 2011).

#### ***5.5.3.4 The importance of teachers' formal qualifications and direct translation experience***

The next two questions aimed to explore the teachers' views on the role of formal qualifications and direct translation and/or interpretation experience. The respondents agreed that formal training is not necessarily important although one of them mentioned that those who undergo translator and/or interpreter training typically have practical experience. One respondent also pointed out that it is essential to have a solid background in linguistics along with extensive background knowledge for becoming an expert (and a good teacher) without formal qualifications. With regard to experience, all three teachers shared the opinion that it is crucial for translation teachers to have first-hand experience in translation or interpretation since they are practical skills (c.f. competence vs. performance). One respondent drew a parallel between translation experience and foreign language learning experience in the sense that for successful performance one needs either formal qualification or direct experience. These responses seem to reflect the current vagueness surrounding the terms 'translation' and 'translator', particularly regarding qualification and experience as well as the boundaries between professional and non-professional activities. The ambiguity appears also in European language policy documents, such as the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) adopted by the Council of Europe (2001).

#### ***5.5.3.5 Teachers' views on students' most typical problems and difficulties***

The main aim of the next two questions was to find out the most common problems and difficulties that foreign language learners have when they translate, including the translation errors that they typically make. In response to the first question, the teachers cited such problems as inadequate foreign language knowledge, lack of experience and routine in

translation, insufficient native language skills and lack of (deeper) linguistic knowledge. One teacher also pointed out that translation is essentially an independent problem-solving activity, which requires a great deal of autonomy from the students. This practice, however, as the teacher explained, may not be familiar for some students, who have to get used to learner-centred instructional methods.

In answering the next question, the respondents mentioned several typical errors. Comprehension errors are usually related to foreign language competence, but can also indicate that a student does not have sufficient background knowledge. On the other hand, these errors can also signal that the student does not know how to use tools and resources effectively, or that the text is too difficult to understand. The teachers also mentioned that novice students also tend to adhere to the source language structure too strictly, which is an indicator of a lack of translation routine and the use of translation strategies (c.f. Heltai 2005a). Native language errors were also brought up, particularly related to punctuation and style. The rules of Hungarian punctuation are worth revising in translation classes, but teachers should also remember that errors of this kind could also stem from source language interference. According to the teachers, stylistic errors are also very common, which are related to target language norms and conventions, and can result in a text that feels unusual or strange. Thus, it is extremely important to discuss these types of errors in a translation class, and it is useful to give students opportunity to correct the error themselves. Finally, two respondents also mentioned grammatical (including spelling) errors, which can occur in both direct and inverse translation. Spelling and grammatical errors belong to the category of binary errors (Pym 1992), which means that they can easily be corrected as there is only one right solution. These do not necessarily have to be discussed in class unless it causes problems for many students. In contrast, non-binary errors (for example stylistic errors) lend themselves to interesting discussions related strictly to translation skills (c.f. Heltai 2005a).

#### ***5.5.3.6 Teachers' views on the role of foreign and native language competence in translation***

The next group of questions aimed to investigate the teachers' views on the relationship between translation competence, foreign language competence, and native language competence. The respondents agreed that foreign language competence is a prerequisite for translation competence, but two of them also pointed out that translation competence meant more than a high level of foreign language competence. According to one teacher, however, under a certain level we cannot speak about or develop translation *competence* in the

professional sense. According to him, this pedagogical context is different from professional translator training (partly) because the language level of students who enter an English BA programme is typically lower. Thus, he suggests that in translation courses integrated into foreign language programmes, more attention should be directed towards developing students' foreign language competence, particularly the semantic and pragmatic aspects of communication.

Similar ideas were expressed in relation to the role of native language skills. The teachers agreed that native language skills were of utmost importance in translation although their role was different in direct and inverse translation. In fact, a number of studies have pointed out that native language skills play a key role even in foreign language learning (e.g., Butzkamm 2003, 2007, Polonyi and Mérő 2007). One teacher highlighted that language users (even if the language is their mother tongue) are not necessarily expert users of the language, particularly in the case of formal language, and translation is an activity that can make students aware of this fact.

#### ***5.5.3.7 Teachers' views on initial needs analysis***

The next question inquired whether teachers make any kind of needs analysis survey prior to the translation course. This does not seem to be standard practice since only one teacher indicated using this method in order to find out about the students' level of language competence, their experience with translation as well as their needs, expectations and interests related to the course. Previous research has shown that needs analysis can provide extremely useful information for translation teachers, but it can be motivating for the students as well. Therefore, this paper suggests that it could form an integral part of translation courses incorporated into foreign language degree programmes. If used on a regular basis, it can help teachers explore the changes in a particular group of students' needs and perceptions regarding the translation course as well as the development of their translation competence, which constitutes key information when evaluating teaching methods. From the students' perspective, there is an additional pedagogical benefit of using needs analysis. It offers them a sense of personal involvement in the teaching and learning process, whereby they may view translation tasks (and the whole course) as more meaningful and relevant to their own life. This in turn, can lead to a more authentic learning experience.



#### ***5.5.3.8 Teachers' views on the relevance of translation within the English BA programme***

The last question aimed to explore teachers' opinions about the overall benefits of integrating translation courses with the English BA programme. According to one teacher, in these courses students gain some experience in translation, learn techniques and strategies, and at the same time, develop their language competences. Another respondent emphasised that these courses develop a number of useful skills (such as reading comprehension, mediation, precision, and autonomy) that students can use later in the workplace, while one teacher pointed out the advantages of developing language skills, language awareness, critical thinking skills, problem-solving and decision-making. In addition to highlighting the specific advantages related to communication and cognitive skills, the teachers seem to be aware of more general benefits of translation, related to generic social skills, such as cultural tolerance, broad-mindedness and cooperation, which were emphasised also by Kelly (2005) and Peverati (2013).

#### **5.5.4 Conclusions**

This small-scale questionnaire study set out to explore the teaching practices, views, and experience of teachers teaching translation in an EU specialisation module offered within the English BA programme in two Hungarian higher education institutions. The results of the survey indicate that these teachers use very similar methods and seem to agree on the fundamental pedagogical principles related to the teaching of translation in this pedagogical setting. Most importantly, they share a competence-based view of translation, and view translation competence as a complex concept, consisting of several elements. They also adopt a functional-textual and process-based approach to teaching translation, in line with the central pedagogical tenets of professional translator training. This implies that in the case of translation courses integrated into foreign language learning and teaching, translation is used not simply as a tool to develop foreign language competence, but is also seen as a useful skill in itself, through which a number of other generic skills can be developed. Even though there are major differences between the goals of the two pedagogical contexts (professional training and translation integrated with foreign language programmes), as well as between the students' language level, needs and expectations, it seems that translation courses serve a useful purposes within the EU specialisation module, and within the whole BA programme.

Results also highlight the importance for translation teachers to have direct translation experience as well as professional knowledge (including content knowledge, pedagogical

knowledge, and knowledge about the curriculum and the learners) in order to teach translation courses competently and effectively at this level. This underlines the role of collaboration between professional translator and interpreter trainers and teachers in foreign language programmes, and suggests that more research attention should be directed towards this interdisciplinary area within both translation studies and foreign language learning and teaching.

Since this research focused only on translation courses that are part of an EU specialisation module within the English BA, future work could investigate the topic from a wider perspective, focusing on different types of translation courses in higher education and even on the use of translation activities in advanced-level foreign language classes in secondary schools with the overall aim of exploring foreign language teachers' practices and views on translation as a communicative and functional activity.

## 6. CONCLUSIONS

The attitudes towards the use of translation in foreign language learning and teaching are rooted in local social and historical traditions but are also subject to global ideological and even political pressures. Interestingly, as Widdowson (2003) pointed out, there is no solid scientific and pedagogical evidence justifying the dismissal of translation from mainstream foreign language pedagogies. The views on the pedagogical values of translation are also strongly influenced by language political moves and trends, in particular by the general perceived status of the different foreign language exams in a given country. These exams give different priorities to translation and mediation tasks, reflecting the specific approach taken by the exam designers, which in turn, are shaped by general attitudes and dominant disciplinary paradigms. In Hungary, because of the diversification of language exams and the increasing popularity of such monolingual exams as Cambridge English, TOEFL or IELTS (coupled with the spread of communicative language teaching), the general perceptions about using translation in foreign language learning and teaching have significantly changed.

Oddly, while in the current theoretical discussion the social role and value of translation is increasingly acknowledged and professional translator and interpreter training programmes are gaining popularity across the world, in foreign language learning and teaching it seems to be extremely difficult to overcome teachers' general reluctance to using translation in the classroom. This widespread resistance is also triggered by deeply ingrained negative views associating translation with the mechanical and uncommunicative task of school translation, and seeing translation as a linguistic activity rather than an essential (and multi-faceted) form of cross-cultural communication. This, however, prevents foreign language teachers from recognising and/or exploiting the immense pedagogical value of communicative translation activities.

One educational setting that can help to overcome the dichotomy of these two theoretical perspectives and their pedagogical manifestations and can bring about refreshing changes is higher education foreign language programmes which – keeping abreast with the current global and European social transformations and at the same time recognising the importance of addressing local needs – have integrated communicative translation with the curriculum in a professionally-oriented and systematic way. As Kelly (2005) and Peverati (2013) pointed out, these courses need to be well integrated with the whole curriculum and properly aligned with the overall learning outcomes of the programme. Instead of pursuing a

purely vocational goal, which might lead to unrealistic and false expectations, these courses should consider the diversity of translation activities along with the varying levels of quality and the required competences. Peverati (2013) suggested that these courses should put the main emphasis on the development of students' *transferable generic skills*, which can be utilised later in different educational, workplace and other real-life settings.

Advanced language learning in instructed settings has received less attention in the general language learning literature despite the fact that instructed settings that create diverse and rich learning opportunities with a focus on genre and discourse are not only advantageous but may even be indispensable to reach a more advanced (and deeper) level of foreign language competence (Byrnes 2006: 2–3). As Byrnes (2006: 19) put it, the goal of this level is to expand learners' "internal meaning-making ability and capacity". Translation courses that use communicative translation tasks should offer a wide range of textual varieties and various written and oral activities through which language learners can develop their awareness of the meaning-making process and become more attentive to the consequences of the choices they make at all levels of language (ranging from the lexical-grammatical register to the level of discourse).

This dissertation set out to investigate translation teaching and the use of EU texts outside the professional training context, which is still a highly under-researched topic both in translation studies and in foreign language learning and teaching. The theoretical part of the dissertation provided a comprehensive and critical overview of the most relevant ideas and arguments within and across the disciplinary boundaries of translation studies, foreign language learning and teaching as well as interdisciplinary research fields investigating language issues (such as multilingualism, intercultural communication and English as a *lingua franca*). The analysis uncovered and discussed underlying assumptions and agendas in current foreign language educational policies and practices, re-examined the concepts of translation, translation competence and communicative competence in the changing global and European context, and pointed out valid but largely dismissed arguments related to translation as an activity and as a pedagogical resource outside the professional context. The theoretical findings are relevant primarily for translation studies and foreign language learning and teaching, and they highlight the importance for these academic disciplines to establish closer ties with each other and with other related fields of inquiry.

To complement the theoretical discussion and provide empirical evidence for the theoretical findings, the dissertation also undertook to explore the topic empirically. Using a case study research design, the empirical investigation focused on a particular educational

programme representing the phenomenon. The empirical research consisted of five independent studies, which explored the role of translation and EU texts in foreign language learning and teaching at the tertiary level, and identified effective ways of integrating translation into the English bachelor's degree programme in Hungary.

The main findings of the five empirical studies were discussed in the concluding section of each respective study (see Sections 5.1.4, 5.2.4, 5.3.5, 5.4.4 and 5.5.4). This chapter seeks to answer the two central questions addressed at the beginning of this dissertation by integrating the theoretical and empirical findings. The two central questions were: (1) What are the roles of translation and EU texts in learning and teaching English as a foreign language at the tertiary level? (2) How can translation be effectively integrated into the English bachelor's degree programme in Hungary? An additional aim of this chapter is to evaluate the findings and identify theoretical and policy implications as well as to delineate future avenues of research which can provide further insights into the topic.

## **6.1 Evaluation of the findings**

When evaluating the findings, it is necessary to consider the limitations of the research project. Since the particular BA programme under investigation was introduced in 2007, at the start of the research (in 2009) it was still in a trial phase. Since most of the existing literature on translation teaching was focusing on the professional training context, the research methods emerged gradually and evolved as the research progressed. Concerning the small sample sizes (except for the graduate survey), it has to be emphasised that the BA programme had a limited intake of students per year, and the number of students was particularly low in the EU specialisation module. Nevertheless, after interpreting the findings of the individual research studies, it is possible to formulate broader pedagogical implications.

The main findings are divided into two categories depending on their wider implications for translation studies and foreign language learning and teaching. Nevertheless, it has to be emphasised that the findings are directly or less directly relevant for both disciplines and thus need to be interpreted as potentials to establish a more dialogical relationship between these two fields of inquiry.

### 6.1.1 Implications for translation studies

One important theoretical finding relevant for translation studies was that translation today can no longer be restricted to the activity of professionals but should rather be viewed as an essential practice in multicultural and multilingual societies. Regarding the Hungarian context, this idea was empirically investigated in Research Study 4, which explored Hungarian students' post-graduation educational and employment experiences related to translation. The empirical results confirm previous arguments. In Hungary, students graduating from the English bachelor's programme often engage in a wide range of translation activities in their career, which partly justifies the integration of translation into the curriculum.

One implication of this finding is that it is beneficial for translation studies to adopt the recently proposed idea of translation as a *cluster* concept (Tymoczko 2007). This enables the inclusion of the wide array of formal and informal translational situations as well as culturally different conceptualisations and perceptions of translation (as a skill and an activity), which are largely influenced by national and European language and translation policies. This means that all forms and types of translation can be studied from a scientific perspective and in a unified conceptual framework, which is essential since the various forms and types of translation strongly influence each other.

In the future, it seems to be crucial for translation studies to better understand the new communities of translators and study their activities as well as their interactions with already existing communities in order to maintain the prestige of the profession. Newly emerged modes of translating and interpreting affect not only the whole translation market but also general attitudes towards translation as a profession. Following from this, translation studies should devote more attention to translation teaching outside the professional context, which can also help to challenge the largely outdated monolingual approach in foreign language learning and teaching, perpetuating the view that translation is an old-fashioned, monotonous, and uncommunicative activity. This can ultimately lead to the acknowledgement of translation not only as a useful resource in (foreign language) learning but also as an essential and practical skill in its own right.

Integrating translation into foreign language learning and teaching could also change the simplistic views about translation held by those who have no direct translation experience. According to the results of Research Study 4, language graduates often find themselves in situations when they have to translate or interpret even in formal public situations when

ideally a professional translator or interpreter should have been used. Thus, teaching translation outside the professional context is also linked to such important issues as quality and the prestige of the whole profession. This has strong pedagogical implications for teachers teaching translation in the context of foreign language learning and teaching. Evidence emerging from Research Study 5, which explored teachers' pedagogical views and experiences, gives grounds for optimism. The results indicated that teachers teaching translation within foreign language programmes typically adopt a professional pedagogical approach and agree that translation is not only a tool to develop foreign language competence but a valuable and practical skill. Nevertheless, the special status of translation courses integrated with foreign language programmes calls for continuous interaction between the disciplines of translation studies (particularly translation pedagogy) and foreign language learning and teaching both at a theoretical level and in actual pedagogical practice.

Another theoretical finding with implications for translation studies was the argument that translation from and into English has a fundamental role not only in facilitating communication but also in better understanding ourselves, our own language and culture as well as other individuals, groups, languages and cultures. In this sense, translation is more than just a means of communication: it can deepen understanding between local languages and cultures and the global English-speaking community. According to the results of the empirical studies, teachers agree that it is an important goal of translation courses incorporated into foreign language programmes to change students' thinking about translation.

The theoretical research has also revealed that the increased use of English as a *lingua franca* in European and international communication does not threaten cultural and linguistic diversity but facilitates the expression and understanding of differences, and thus contributes to the growing importance of translation (including non-professional practices) both at the interpersonal and intercultural level. The dissertation pointed out that an important conceptual link between intercultural communication and translation studies is the idea that without intercultural understanding it is impossible to achieve functional equivalence, which is the central principle not only in professional translator training but also in translation courses within foreign language programmes. The dissertation argued that translation studies is inherently linked with ELF research not only because the spread of English affects the role and function of translation but also because translation increasingly involves non-native varieties of English. The issues of ownership of the English language and the role of native and non-native teachers in the global industry of ELT are in turn strongly connected to the

status of translation in foreign language learning and teaching. Drawing on Cook's (2012) idea, the dissertation emphasised that ELF research can benefit from using existing theories and models formulated by translation scholars to explain language-related phenomena.

The theoretical part also critically examined the place of translation teaching within the academic discipline of translation studies, and evaluated recent criticisms expressed by translation studies scholars. The major argument was based on Chesterman's (1993) idea according to which the aim of Descriptive Translation Studies is to establish observable regularities in translators' behaviour regardless of the type and quality of the translation and the translator's competence. Although Chesterman emphasised the importance of norms that regulate the accepted behaviour of translators (an idea that has directed the main attention of translation studies to the behaviour of professional translators and the products of professional translation), the dissertation pointed out that the evaluative aspect should not replace but *complement* the general description of all types of translation. Focusing on non-professional translation is increasingly important not only for the pure branches of translation studies (the descriptive and theoretical subdivisions) but particularly for translation pedagogy because it can help to better understand the concept of translation competence and its development.

The dissertation also indicated that recent conceptual maps of translation studies (e.g., van Doorslaer 2007) and some European policy documents (e.g., CEFR and MAGICC) seem to blur the boundaries between professional and non-professional translation (in terms of necessary qualification and/or experience) as well as between formal and informal translation situations, which can have negative impacts on quality and the whole profession. This underlines the importance for language and translation scholars to develop closer ties and engage in more dialogue.

The theoretical part also revealed that applied translation studies has been given relatively less attention in translation studies, and it seems to have a lower status compared to the 'pure' branches. Thus, in line with recent arguments, the dissertation suggested that the applied branch should be more integrated into the disciplinary core of translation studies since it can provide the basis not only for testing and explaining theories and justifying educational policy decisions, but also for identifying problems using descriptive methodologies. Scarpa et al.'s (2009) model was found particularly relevant because it sees applied translation studies as able to inform, influence or even modify existing theories, while descriptive translation studies is viewed as a common methodological framework for both theory and application. One motivation for the empirical research reported in this dissertation was the perceived need for localised empirical studies focusing on teaching translation outside professional settings.



Research into teaching translation within foreign language programmes that goes beyond school translation provides useful data for the descriptive branches of translation studies. Empirical evidence from such studies can expand the theoretical knowledge within the discipline and can help to establish closer ties between translation studies and other relevant disciplines.

### **6.1.2 Implications for foreign language learning and teaching**

The most important theoretical finding that has implications primarily for foreign language learning and teaching (but also for translation studies) is the idea that since the aims of foreign language learning have changed, the concept of advanced foreign language competence needs to be revisited. Researchers increasingly emphasise that the main aim of foreign language learning is no longer to be able to communicate across cultures but to understand the complexities of communication and the meaning-making process. This idea is expressed by the term *linguaging* (Swain 2008), which implies that language is not merely a conveyor of a fixed message but primarily a cognitive activity that helps individuals learn about themselves and others, shaping their knowledge and experience. Thus, foreign language learners need to acquire a *symbolic competence*, which helps them interpret and reflect on what discourse reveals about other people's minds and human intentions as well as about social identities, individual and collective memories, emotions and aspirations (Kramsch 2011: 357). Drawing on the ideas advocated in a number of fields studying language and language use, the dissertation has argued that competent language users are able to understand and critically reflect on the cultural, social and historical meanings conveyed by the grammar and lexicon, considering the individual and temporal nature of (inter-cultural) communication as well as the social conventions and cultural expectations that are hidden in discourse.

Another central argument in the dissertation (which was supported by the results of the empirical studies) is that translation used in a communicative way has excellent potentials in this new approach to foreign language learning and teaching as it requires deep understanding of the meaning of the text (including the author's intentions and the overall purpose of the whole text) as well as awareness of the social, historical and cultural context surrounding both the source and the target text. The results of the empirical study exploring teachers' views and experiences indicate that the teachers (who all had direct translation experience) recognise the great potentials of communicative translation activities in the foreign language classroom.

Related to the changing aims of learning languages in today's globalised environments, another finding with important implications was the need for adopting a new pedagogical approach in foreign language learning and teaching, one that does not ignore the use of the students' native language. The dissertation analysed the historical origins of the prevailing monolingual view in mainstream ELT pedagogies and its impacts on the current practice of foreign language teaching. The discussion has revealed that the dominant monolingual view is related to ideological issues and is rooted in the practice of teaching English. The main implication for teachers of English as a foreign language is that in order to keep up with the recent social changes (which have impacts on language use and individual motivations to learn languages), they need to redefine their educational role and move beyond the monolingual pedagogy. This also implies that translation needs to be recognised as a useful resource in language learning.

The results of the empirical studies confirm the initial assumption that one important aim of translation courses incorporated into foreign language programmes is to raise students' awareness of the complex and diverse nature of translation as a process and an activity, and change their initial naïve views that translation is a relatively easy mechanical process (c.f. sign-oriented translation) that requires only foreign language proficiency (particularly a wide vocabulary and/or a good dictionary). Unfortunately, not only foreign language learners who are novice translation students have rather simplistic views about translation (as shown by the results of Research Study 1) but also those who do not have direct experience with written or oral translation. This, however, has far-reaching consequences, and can explain the results of Research Study 4, which showed that in real life, language graduates could end up doing translation when a professional translator should have been hired. This leads us back to the issue of quality, which is equally important in translation courses incorporated into foreign language programmes. Thus, discussing questions related to quality, translation as a profession along with the role and function of norms and conventions is crucial also at this level. The importance of these topics was also confirmed by the results of the linguistic analysis of student translations (Research Study 2 and 3) as well as the by the findings of Research Study 5, which explored teachers' views, experiences and teaching practices.

Another major implication for foreign language learning and teaching is related to the most effective pedagogical approaches and methods related to teaching translation at this level. The results of the empirical studies confirmed the assumption that language learners clearly benefit from a professional pedagogical approach that views translation as a real-life, communicative and functional activity and as a problem-solving process. However, since the

level of foreign language proficiency of these students is lower than in professional translator training, special emphasis should be placed on the development of foreign language competence in the narrow sense, for example through the correction of *binary errors* (Pym 1992) occurring in translation (which are more linguistic in nature compared to *non-binary errors*). Furthermore, these courses should also focus on developing students' native language competence. To achieve these aims, it is important to use a wide range of translation activities (both from and into English) and discuss the most typical and/or challenging real translation errors (i.e., *non-binary errors*) as well, which are related to the use of norms and conventions.

Regarding assessment, it is important to point out that the error analysis used in Research study 2 and 3 served primarily research purposes, and thus it did not reflect all the assessment methods used in actual practice. Since translation is viewed as an individual problem-solving process, using continuous formative assessment and various sources of feedback are of utmost importance. Ideally, criterion-referenced, holistic (descriptive) teacher assessment is combined with learner-centred analyses, which can raise students' awareness. In these activities, students have the opportunity to reflect on and revise their own work based on the feedback from the teacher and peers. For example, translation logs or diaries are excellent pedagogical tools to achieve these aims. Regarding analytic error-correction, teachers are advised to indicate the errors without explicitly correcting them, which enables students to correct the errors, and thus leads to genuine learning. Teachers should also pay attention to providing balanced and constructive feedback, and instead of pointing out only the errors, they should comment on creative solutions and progress. It has to be emphasised that the forms of assessment should always depend on the type of activity as the activities have different purposes. While criterion-referenced formative assessment is most helpful, norm-referenced assessment can also be used in certain situations for specific purposes. This allows students to compare their performance with the performance of professional translators, and can serve as a point of reference to judge the quality of their translations. However, it should be emphasised that the professional translation is just one acceptable version, which may even be criticised (especially in the light of the actual circumstances of the translation situation). In short, teachers should remain flexible, always selecting and adjusting the types, modes and tools of assessment (including the criteria and the weighting of the criteria) according to the translation task.

The results of Research Study 2, which investigated a group of foreign language learners' translation performance, revealed that the linguistic errors that occur in the student translations were related not only to the *bilingual* sub-competence in the PACTE (2011)

model of translation competence but also to various other sub-competences, such as the *extra-linguistic*, *instrumental*, *strategic* and *psycho-physiological* sub-competences and to the sub-competence referred to as *knowledge about translation*. This underlines the importance of viewing translation skills as a complex set of interrelated sub-competences (i.e., as translation *competence*). Adopting this perspective offers a vast array of communicative and functional activities that teachers can use to develop different sub-competences in a more targeted manner.

The level of students' foreign language competence in this educational setting is not as high as in professional training contexts. Thus, teachers need to focus also on developing students' foreign language competence. This competence is important in both direct and inverse translation, albeit differently. The degree of source language interference also seems to be very high in the early stages (when translating into Hungarian), particularly related to phraseology (collocations). This points to the importance of raising students' awareness of the linguistic and textual norms and conventions in their native language. Teachers should also emphasise target language acceptability and accuracy in translation, which are fundamental principles in recent translation theories and widely applied in professional translator training.

It seems to be beneficial if teachers teaching translation in foreign language programmes have direct translation experience and/or formal qualifications, which help them to adopt a professional approach to teaching translation. However, it is important to remember that the main learning objectives in this context are different from those in professional training. Thus, it is recommended that along with translating authentic texts into the students' native language, teachers also use inverse translation (from L1 into L2, which is not typical in professional training) as well as various oral translation and mediation activities (which are very common in real life). Furthermore, as pointed out earlier, short and more targeted tasks are also useful, developing various sub-competences (for example the use of resources, field-specific terminology or background knowledge).

The Results of Research Study 5 (exploring teachers' views and experiences) indicated that translation teachers at this level view translation as a diverse real-life activity. This implies that translation is not only a tool to develop foreign language competence but is considered a valuable skill in its own right, enabling or facilitating communication and allowing individuals to see themselves through the lens of a different language and culture. These two views concerning translation seem to be closely related to the two main approaches to the study of language and the primary aims of language learning. On the one hand, language (and translation) can be seen as having a principally instrumental function, enabling

communication within and across cultures. On the other hand, language (and translation in its broad sense) can be viewed as an integral and vital component of human identity, including the way individuals think, perceive, and express themselves within their culture and in cross-cultural interactions. These findings point to the wider benefits of using translation in foreign language learning and teaching.

The results of the Research Study 2 and 3 also confirm the assumption that a functional-textual approach can be effectively used in translation courses integrated with foreign language programmes. Since translating a text requires proper understanding of the function of both the source and the target text in their own context, the development of translation competence requires reliance on functional and textual principles. Analysing students' recurring errors in their translations and exploring their individual difficulties can provide useful information for the teacher about the students' progress, and can also serve as a useful guide in selecting and sequencing texts for instruction. More advanced language learners may face various problems which result in errors on the level of the register (primarily lexical and syntactic errors), but apparently many of these problems originate from the interplay between the text and the social/cultural context surrounding the text, particularly from different norms and conventions in different languages.

With regard to EU texts, the dissertation pointed out that these texts are extremely useful for this level for several reasons. EU documents (in the narrow sense) illustrate the dynamic nature of contemporary European communication in multicultural environments. Concerning the topic of EU texts, the empirical studies confirmed that students could benefit from the information content of these texts not only because EU-related knowledge can be considered as part of general knowledge but also because the EU provides the legal and operational framework for every field of industry. Translating EU texts extends students' general and field-specific knowledge in both their native and foreign language and provides opportunities for practicing language for specific purposes. In the case of the selected programme, the translation courses were complemented by English for EU purposes courses, so the students were able to apply the acquired factual knowledge about the EU in practice, when translating EU texts. The results of the graduate survey indicated that former students typically rated the usefulness of EU texts very high. Since EU topics have direct relevance to the students' life, they can increase the authenticity of learning and students' motivation. This justifies Klaudy's (2004a) argument that teaching language mediation skills as well as using EU texts (in the broad sense) should be an integral part of foreign language learning and teaching at the tertiary level and even earlier.

The empirical results of Research Study 2 and 3 also underline previous arguments emphasising the educational benefits of integrating translation into foreign language learning and teaching. From a broad perspective, using translation in language teaching seems to embrace the main educational philosophies that underpin the curriculum. Translation is not only a useful skill in the job market, but it promotes positive social values, enables intellectual and personal fulfilment and contributes to the preservation and transmission of theoretical knowledge within and across disciplines. Translation is as an excellent activity to develop such important generic, transferable skills as critical analysis, self-reflection, problem solving, time-management, precision, concentration, creativity, independence, collaboration, the use of resources and information management, concern for quality, self-evaluation and intercultural understanding. By activating a wide range of competences and learning strategies, translation is not only an authentic learning task in itself, but provides links between the different (often isolated) components of the foreign language degree programme and promotes cross-curricular learning.

Another important pedagogical implication emerging from the results of the empirical research is related to the use of needs analysis. The results of Research Study 1 indicate that there can be significant differences between individual students' needs, perceptions and expectations, and these do not necessarily coincide with what teachers think. These discrepancies point to the benefits of an initial needs analysis, which can orientate the teacher in the design of translation courses so that the course is better suited for a specific group of learners. Language learners who are novice translation students may have extremely naïve views about translation, and it may be difficult for them to determine the difficulty and usefulness of different texts and activities, yet an initial needs analysis can provide extremely useful information for the teacher. Although the needs analysis study reported in this dissertation was limited in its scope, and it only explored the needs and expectations of a particular group of students and the teacher prior to the course, it demonstrated its main pedagogical benefits. Ideally, needs analysis forms an integral part of translation courses integrated with foreign language degree programmes. If used on a regular basis, it can help teachers explore the changes in the students' needs and perceptions regarding the translation course as well as in the development of their translation competence, which is extremely useful for the evaluation of their own teaching methods. Empirical research of this kind can also be useful for translation studies, particularly for researchers interested in process-research into the development of translation competence.

From the students' perspective, there is an additional pedagogical benefit of using needs analysis. It offers them a sense of personal involvement in the teaching and learning process. As a result, they can view the translation tasks (and the whole course) as more meaningful, intrinsically worthwhile and relevant to their own life, which leads to a more authentic learning experience.

Finally, the most ambitious and forward-looking implication for foreign language learning and teaching is related to the structure of the modern foreign language degree programmes. The two main approaches to language are directly reflected in the main philosophy (or in the curriculum) of various institutions that engage in foreign language teaching. Private language schools and foreign language courses offered by universities typically have a narrower, instrumental view of language, while foreign language degree programmes tend to adopt a wider approach to language (as embedded in culture). Foreign language departments (also in Hungary) are typically divided into two separate units, one focusing on the language and the other on literature/culture, with little or no interaction between them. Changing this traditional but rigid structure is considered by many to be one of the biggest challenges facing language departments these days. On the other hand, this also represents a great and exciting opportunity for them. According to the Modern Language Association of America Ad Hoc Committee on Foreign Languages (2007), this structure is outdated and thus needs to be reformed. As they put it:

Many factors in the world today make advanced study of languages and cultures appealing to students and vital to society. Replacing the two-tiered language-literature structure with a broader and more coherent curriculum in which language, culture, and literature are taught as a continuous whole, supported by alliances with other departments and expressed through interdisciplinary courses, will reinvigorate language departments as valuable academic units central to the humanities and to the missions of institutions of higher learning. In our view, foreign language departments, if they are to be meaningful players in higher education – or, indeed, if they are to thrive as autonomous units – must transform their programs and structure. This idea builds directly on a transformation that has already taken place in the profession. In their individual scholarly pursuits and in their pedagogical practices, foreign language faculty members have been working in creative ways to cross disciplinary boundaries, incorporate the study of all kinds of material in addition to the strictly literary, and promote wide cultural understanding through research and teaching. It is time for all language programs in all institutions to reflect this transformation. (2007: 237)

This mission statement seems to apply not only in the United States, but also in Europe, including Hungary, where – as this dissertation showed – there are promising signs of moving

in this direction. Integrating translation into foreign language programmes seems to be a viable means of bringing about a long-overdue reform or even a paradigm change advocated by leading applied linguistics scholars (e.g., Cook 2010, Widdowson 2003). However, in order to bridge the gap between the mono- and multi/translingual views of language outlined above and unlock the true potentials of translation, developing stronger ties and more systematic ways of collaboration between the disciplines of translation studies and foreign language learning and teaching are seen as absolutely essential both on a theoretical and practical level.

## 6.2 Limitations and recommendations for future research

The main limitation of the empirical research lies in the case study design. Since the studies focused only on one particular educational setting and the sample sizes were small (except for the graduate survey research), there are limits on generalising the findings to other contexts. However, it has to be emphasised that the overall aim of this qualitative research was to deepen understanding of the role of translation in foreign language learning and teaching rather than to predict scientifically generalisable outcomes and find universal or broadly applicable laws. The qualitative case study design enabled an in-depth and multi-perspective analysis of the research phenomenon. However, since the educational programme selected for the study was a typical representation of the researched phenomenon, it increases the applicability of findings in similar contexts. Related to the case study research design, Stake and Trumbull (1982) introduced the term *naturalistic generalisation*, which allows readers to reflect on the details of the given case, interpret the ideas and findings based on their own experiences, and consider generalising them to similar contexts that they are familiar with. Thus, instead of objectively generalising the findings of the case study to larger (or entire) populations, it is possible to transfer the emerging hypotheses to other, similar contexts (Lincoln and Guba 1985). It is important to emphasise that the research reported here studied an existing educational situation (which was seen as effective and innovative) with a view to exploring possible future visions in education (Schofield 2002). However, since social (including language) phenomena are strongly dependent on the socio-cultural context, any kind of generalisation needs to be made with caution.

In order to see how the findings apply elsewhere as well as to further explore and evaluate the use of communicative translation and texts with specialised content in Hungarian



higher education, additional localised and/or more comprehensive national and cross-national research studies (involving more higher educational institutions and programmes) need to be conducted. These studies could include translation courses in various specialisation modules within English (and other) language programmes, and even individual courses which focus on the development of translation skills. It is important that these future studies approach the phenomenon from a wide range of perspectives and include various stakeholders, such as students, teachers, representatives of several industries, as well as translation professionals). The results of large-scale surveys mapping out foreign language graduates' future career experiences regarding translation and EU texts/topics can provide extremely useful research information and can guide curriculum designers in adjusting course content and instructional methods.

Another interesting and important line of research would be to quantitatively measure the effectiveness of using translation activities as a tool to develop students' foreign and native language competence. This could also include such important aspects of the learning process as motivation and independent learning skills.

It would also be interesting to extend the level of the research and explore the potentials of using communicative translation activities on the secondary level in Hungary. This research would ideally also include comprehensive studies looking into teachers' attitudes and practices regarding these issues.

Finally, similar to the cross-national comparative research mentioned in the theoretical part (conducted in international collaboration and was supported by the European Commission's Directorate-General for Translation 2013), further studies could investigate and compare teachers' general perceptions of translation as a pedagogical activity and their instructional practices regarding the use of translation and EU texts/topics along with students' attitudes to these activities. Since a country's language and translation policy (particularly the issue of dubbing/subtitling in the media) are believed to greatly influence general views on translation, it would be interesting to explore to what extent and how policy decisions affect general conceptions about language and translation as well as the use of communicative translation activities in foreign language learning and teaching.

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## APPENDICES

### Appendix A Summative assessment tool (adapted from Williams' 2013: 435–440)<sup>14</sup>.

| <b>Component 1 (ILOs 1, 3 &amp; 4): Transfer/functional and textual adequacy</b><br><b>Competencies: Translational, linguistic, textual, cultural/encyclopaedic, reasoning, strategic</b><br><b>Weighted value: 40</b> |  |             |       |
|--|--|-------------|-------|
| Grade  | Description  | Value range | Score |
| <b>5</b><br><b>Very high level of competency</b><br><b>Very high degree of declarative, conceptual, procedural, and metacognitive knowledge</b>  | Criteria: accuracy, coherence, quality of reasoning/argumentation, consideration of text function (informative, explanatory, directive, persuasive) and target readership expectations and requirements<br><br>Indicators:<br>Translation accurately reflects meaning of ST, without unwarranted alterations, omissions or additions. Nuances or shades of meaning have been accurately rendered. Translation performs intended function and meets target readership expectation/requirements. Demonstration of very high degree of declarative and conceptual knowledge of SL, TL, of procedural knowledge of translation methods, and of monitoring for error. | 32-40       |       |
| <b>4</b><br><b>High level of competency</b><br><b>High degree of declarative, conceptual, procedural, and metacognitive knowledge</b>  | Indicators:<br>Minor alterations in meaning, additions or omissions. Translation generally performs intended function and meets target readership expectation/requirements. Demonstration of high degree of knowledge of SL, TL, translation methods, and monitoring.  | 28-31       |       |
| <b>3</b><br><b>Emerging competency</b><br><b>Moderate degree of declarative, conceptual, procedural, and metacognitive knowledge</b>   | Indicators:<br>Some unjustified changes in meaning, omissions and/or additions, some of them significant. Translation shows some consideration of intended function and target readership expectation/requirements, but, for example, elements of argumentation and TL textual features are not rendered. Demonstration of moderate knowledge of SL, TL, translation methods, and monitoring.  | 24-27       |       |
| <b>2</b><br><b>Marginal competency</b><br><b>Limited degree of declarative, conceptual, procedural, and metacognitive knowledge</b>  | Indicators: Several deviations from ST, some of them significant. Translation shows limited consideration of intended function and target readership expectation/requirements, and several elements of argumentation and TL textual features are not rendered. Demonstration of limited knowledge of SL, TL, translation methods, and monitoring.  | 20-23       |       |
| <b>1</b><br><b>Competency not demonstrated</b><br><b>Very low degree of declarative, conceptual, procedural, and metacognitive knowledge</b>   | Indicators:<br>Many unwarranted and significant deviations from ST. Inaccurate renderings and/or important omission and additions. Translation shows very limited consideration of intended function and target readership expectation/requirements. Demonstration of very defective knowledge of SL, TL, translation methods, and monitoring.   | 0-19        |       |

<sup>14</sup> The tables are reproduced in a slightly modified form, using a numerical grading scale from 1–5 instead of the original alphabetical scale using five letter grades: A [A<sup>-</sup>, A & A<sup>+</sup>], B [B & B<sup>+</sup>], C [C & C<sup>+</sup>], D [D & D<sup>+</sup>], and F. The modification was made with written permission of the author.

| <b>Component 2 (ILOs 2 and 3): Target language</b><br><b>Competencies: Linguistic, textual, reasoning, strategic</b><br><b>Weighted value: 40</b> |   |                    |              |
|---|---|--------------------|--------------|
| <b>Grade</b>  | <b>Description</b><br>Criteria: quality of typography, grammar and usage, readability, idiomaticity, cohesion, consideration of text function (informative, explanatory, directive, persuasive) and target readership expectations and requirements   | <b>Value range</b> | <b>Score</b> |
| <b>5</b><br><b>Very high level of competency</b><br><b>Very high degree of declarative, conceptual, procedural, and metacognitive knowledge</b>   | Indicators:<br>Virtually no TL errors. The text reads as if it was originated in TL and meets target readership's expectations regarding text function and genre. \very few, if any, typographical, grammatical and usage errors. Demonstration of very high degree of knowledge of TL and TL textual/rhetorical features and conventions and of monitoring for error.  | 32-40              |              |
| <b>4</b><br><b>High level of competency</b><br><b>High degree of declarative, conceptual, procedural, and metacognitive knowledge</b>             | Indicators:<br>A few minor TL errors. The text generally reads as if it was originated in TL and generally meets target readership's expectations regarding text function and genre, but there some awkward expressions and calques and occasional typographical, grammatical and usage errors.<br>Demonstration of high degree of knowledge of TL and TL textual/rhetorical features and conventions and monitoring for error.                           | 28-31              |              |
| <b>3</b><br><b>Emerging competency</b><br><b>Moderate degree of declarative, conceptual, procedural, and metacognitive knowledge</b>              | Indicators:<br>A number of typographical, grammatical and/or usage errors, some of them significant. SL typography, grammar, lexicon and usage shows up in the translation and adversely affects readability. Cohesion between propositions is sometimes defective. Several typographical, grammatical and usage errors. Demonstration of moderate degree of knowledge of TL and TL textual/rhetorical features and conventions and monitoring for error. | 24-27              |              |
| <b>2</b><br><b>Marginal competency</b><br><b>Limited degree of declarative, conceptual, procedural, and metacognitive knowledge</b>               | Indicators:<br>Many typographical, grammatical and/or usage errors, some of them major. SL and rudimentary typography, grammar, lexicon and usage show up in the translation in several instances and affects readability significantly. Cohesion between propositions is often defective. Demonstration of limited knowledge of TL and TL textual/rhetorical features and conventions and of monitoring for error.                                       | 20-23              |              |
| <b>1</b><br><b>Competency not demonstrated</b><br><b>Very low degree of declarative, conceptual, procedural, and metacognitive knowledge</b>      | Indicators:<br>Too many typographical, grammatical and/or usage errors, a number of them major. SL typography, grammar, lexicon and usage dominate and adversely affect readability through the translation. In no way is it an example of an acceptable TL text Cohesion between propositions is highly defective. Demonstration of very low degree of knowledge of TL and TL textual/rhetorical features and conventions and monitoring for error.      |                    |              |



| <b>Component 3 (ILOs 3 and 4): Terminology/research</b><br><b>Competencies: Reasoning, strategic</b><br><b>Weighted value: 20</b>               |  |                    |              |
|---|--|--------------------|--------------|
| <b>Grade</b>  | <b>Description</b><br>Criteria: quality of terminological, authoritativeness of sources, adequacy of explanations and justifications for choices.  | <b>Value range</b> | <b>Score</b> |
| <b>5</b><br><b>Very high level of competency</b><br><b>Very high degree of declarative, conceptual, procedural, and metacognitive knowledge</b> | <b>Indicators:</b><br>Terms are accurate and appropriate to field. Explanations are complete and valid. All sources are appropriate. Demonstration of very high degree of (declarative) knowledge of specialized terminology and (metacognitive) knowledge of means of evaluating of sources.  | 32-40              |              |
| <b>4</b><br><b>High level of competency</b><br><b>High degree of declarative, conceptual, procedural, and metacognitive knowledge</b>           | <b>Indicators:</b><br>Terms are generally accurate and appropriate. Explanations and sources are generally of good quality. Demonstration of high degree of (declarative) knowledge of specialized terminology and (metacognitive) knowledge of means of evaluating of sources.  | 28-31              |              |
| <b>3</b><br><b>Emerging competency</b><br><b>Moderate degree of declarative, conceptual, procedural, and metacognitive knowledge</b>            | <b>Indicators:</b><br>Several terminological errors affecting terminological content. Some important explanations of translation decisions are missing and/or some sources are of poor quality or are not given. Demonstration of moderate degree of (declarative) knowledge of specialized terminology and (metacognitive) knowledge of means of evaluating of sources. | 24-27              |              |
| <b>2</b><br><b>Marginal competency</b><br><b>Limited degree of declarative, conceptual, procedural, and metacognitive knowledge</b>             | Serious and frequent errors in terminology and/or specialized content. Limited explanations of translation decisions and/or use of several unreliable sources. Demonstration of limited degree of (declarative) knowledge of specialized terminology and (metacognitive) knowledge of means of evaluating of sources.  | 20-23              |              |
| <b>1</b><br><b>Competency not demonstrated</b><br><b>Very low degree of declarative, conceptual, procedural, and metacognitive knowledge</b>    | Accurate, appropriate terms not used. Insufficient explanations of translation decisions and/or poor choice of sources. Demonstration of very low degree of (declarative) knowledge of specialized terminology and (metacognitive) knowledge of means of evaluating of sources.  |                    |              |

| <b>Tally sheet</b>                       |                        |                    |
|--|------------------------|--------------------|
| <b>Component</b>                         | <b>Category rating</b> | <b>Score value</b> |
| Transfer/functional and textual adequacy | 40                     |                    |
| Target language                          | 40                     |                    |
| Terminology/research                     | 20                     |                    |
| <b>Total score</b>                       | 100                    | %                  |

**Holistic assessment and grading summary**

| Percentage | Check one | Grade | Description   |
|------------|-----------|-------|---|
| 80-100     |           | 5     | Very high level of competency/significant progress toward professional knowledge in all dimensions.<br>Demonstrated ability to produce work of professional quality requiring only minor revisions.         |
| 70-79      |           | 4     | Demonstrated competency/clear progress toward professional knowledge in all dimensions and ability to produce work adequate for information purposes or of publishable quality after some revision.         |
| 60-69      |           | 3     | Emerging competency. Demonstrated potential for producing translations that are usable after extensive revision, but significant progress required in one or more competencies/knowledge dimensions.        |
| 50-59      |           | 2     | Marginal competency. Given the number and seriousness of errors, student shows limited potential for producing usable translations. Significant progress required in all competencies/knowledge dimensions. |
| 0-49       |           | 1     | Competency/knowledge not demonstrated. Given the number and seriousness of errors, the student does not show potential for producing professional-quality work over the medium or long term.                |

## Appendix B Student questionnaire

### I. PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. How old are you?  
.....
2. How long have you been learning English?  
.....
3. Why did you choose the EU specialisation module?  
.....  
.....
4. Are you planning to continue your studies in a translation MA programme in the future?  
Circle the appropriate answer.  
  
yes/ no
5. Please, give reasons for your answer.  
.....  
.....

### II. INFORMATION REGARDING LANGUAGE COMPETENCE

6. What type and what level of language exam do you have?  
.....
7. How would you assess your language competence? Based on the following description, underline the appropriate level.

**B1 Threshold** (Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes & ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.)

**B2 Vantage** (Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.)

**C1 Effective Operational Proficiency** (Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognise implicit meaning. Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.)

**C2 Mastery** (Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarise information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in the most complex situations.)

8. How would you specify your strong and weak areas of your language knowledge? Underline the appropriate areas in both columns.

**STRENGTHS**

reading  
writing  
listening  
speaking  
translation  
pronunciation  
grammar  
vocabulary  
language functions in various  
situations (e.g. making requests,  
giving advice, making suggestions)

**WEAKNESSES**

reading  
writing  
listening  
speaking  
translation  
pronunciation  
grammar  
vocabulary  
language functions in various  
situations (e.g. making requests,  
giving advice, making suggestions)

**III. INFORMATION ABOUT TRANSLATION**

9. Do you have any experience in translating from English into Hungarian or from Hungarian into English? If so, please specify it.

.....  
.....

10. In general, how would you rate the difficulty of translation? Circle the appropriate answer then give reasons to your answer.

(easy) 1    2    3    4 (difficult)

.....  
.....

11. Underline what causes most of the difficulties for you in translation.

spelling  
translating words and expressions (including terms)  
sentence structure  
word order  
preserving formality  
preserving genre characteristics  
cultural, social and professional background knowledge  
other: .....

12. What characterises a good translator?

.....  
.....

13. What tools are necessary for making a good translation?

.....  
.....

14. Do you think translation competence can be developed? If so, how? If not, why not?

.....  
.....

#### IV. INFORMATION ABOUT THE CONTENT OF THE EU SPECIALISATION COURSE

15. What expectations do you have concerning the course (what skills and abilities do you expect to develop, what kind of knowledge would you like to gain, etc.)

.....  
 .....  
 .....

16. In what future situations do you think you will use the knowledge that you gain in the course?

.....  
 .....

17. Please, underline what topic areas you think would be most useful in the course.

environmental protection  
 education  
 sport  
 economic policy  
 monetary affairs and taxation  
 culture, media  
 agriculture, food safety  
 health  
 employment policy  
 social issues  
 science and technology

energy policy  
 transport and travelling  
 regional policy  
 foreign affairs  
 enlargement  
 multilingualism  
 history of the EU  
 working of EU institutions  
 consumer protection  
 enterprise policy  
 other: .....

18. Underline what genres you think would be useful to translate in the course.

legislation  
 newspaper articles  
 parliamentary questions  
 official speeches  
 formal letters

documents of EU institutions  
 job advertisement  
 CV  
 advertising materials  
 other: .....

19. Underline what types of activities you think would be useful in the course.

sight translation in class  
 discussing translations prepared at home  
 assessing peers' translations  
 group work in class  
 project work outside class  
 oral presentation

discussing transfer operations  
 practicing grammatical structures  
 developing specialised vocabulary  
 revising/extending background knowledge  
 interpretation  
 other:.....

20. Underline what forms of evaluation you think would be useful in the course. You can choose more than one.

one longer text translated at home, to be submitted at the end of the course  
 several shorter pieces of translation throughout the course  
 project work  
 vocabulary quizzes  
 oral presentations  
 other: .....

**Appendix C Main questions asked in the semi-structured interview with the teacher**

1. What is the average language proficiency level of English BA students starting the EU specialisation module in the first semester of the second year?
2. In your experience, what are the students' main language strengths and weaknesses?
3. What makes translation most difficult for these students?
4. What kinds of translation tools and resources should the students learn to use?
5. How do you think translation competence can be developed in general?
6. How do the lectures you teach benefit the students?
7. What exactly do you cover in the lectures, and what are your teaching methods?
8. What topics do you cover which are related to EU translation?

## **Appendix D – Context for the translation task**

Parliamentary questions 5 August 2009

**WRITTEN QUESTION by Béla Glattfelder (PPE) to the Commission**

Subject: Animal welfare measures, force-feeding of geese

Animal welfare standards in the EU are much stricter than in our main agricultural competitor countries. The strict standards do not apply to imported products.

What action is the EU taking, in the context of multilateral negotiations within the WTO, to promote the recognition of animal welfare measures as measures aimed at restricting imports?

Goose liver is one of Hungary's main agricultural export products. Thousands of families make a living from the force-feeding of geese and the production of goose liver, particularly in the Great Hungarian Plain (Alföld), which is a disadvantaged region.

Hungary currently applies a derogation with respect to force-feeding geese. When the moratorium lapses, what regulations will apply to this field?

## **Appendix E – The translation task (sentences are numbered)**

Translation brief: You have been asked to translate the following text from English into Hungarian. The text is to be published in Eur-Lex, the EU's official online journal in October 2009 exactly as you have delivered it.

Parliamentary questions 15 September 2009

### **ANSWER given by Ms Vassiliou on behalf of the Commission**

(1) The Commission is aware of the importance for Hungary of the production of foie gras from geese.

(2) Foie gras production is covered by Directive 98/58/EC concerning the protection of animals kept for farming purposes. (3) This directive aims at giving effect within Community legislation to the European Convention for the Protection of Animals kept for Farming Purposes of 1976 ('the Convention'). (4) The recommendation concerning domestic geese and their crossbreeds ('the recommendation') covers the production of foie gras from these animals, it was adopted in 1999 with the support of the Community. (5) The Convention and its subsequent Recommendations are part of Community law.

(6) The recommendation mentioned above does not prohibit as such the production of foie gras from geese. (7) On the contrary, the recommendation explicitly acknowledges the legality of the production of foie gras as such and only puts countries allowing foie gras production, such as Hungary, under certain obligations, i.e. inter alia, it obliges countries allowing foie gras production to encourage research on its welfare aspects and on alternative methods, which do not include gavage.

(8) The recommendation also foresees that, until new scientific evidence on alternative methods and their welfare aspects is available, the production of foie gras shall be carried out only where it is current practice and then only in accordance with standards laid down in domestic law. (9) The competent authorities shall monitor this type of production to ensure the implementation of the provisions of the recommendation.

(10) Finally, supporting and initiating international initiatives to raise awareness and create a greater consensus on animal welfare is one of the main areas of actions defined in the Community Action Plan on the Protection and Welfare of Animals. (11) In this regard, the EC cooperates with its international trading partners, which have themselves developed animal welfare policies, in order to build a common understanding on the implementation of mutually agreed animal welfare standards, including in the context of specific EC multilateral and bilateral agreements. (12) The EC has led the debate in the most relevant multilateral fora such as the WTO or the World Organisation for Animal Health with the final aim to share recognition of the importance the EC attaches to animal welfare standards, while at the same time avoiding that animal welfare measures become disguised restrictions to imports.



## Appendix F Commission Press Release and translation instruction

Brussels, 25 February 2011

### 1      **Bisphenol A: EU ban on use in baby bottles enters into force next week**

2      A ban prohibiting the manufacture in the European Union of baby bottles containing  
3      Bisphenol A (BPA) substance enters into force next week, on March 1. BPA is widely  
4      used in the production of plastic baby bottles. The ban is foreseen in an EU directive  
5      (2011/8/EU) adopted in late January which also cover, on June 1, the placing on the  
6      market and import into the EU of baby bottles containing BPA. Meanwhile, the  
7      industry is voluntarily withdrawing from the market baby bottles containing BPA and  
8      replacing them with safer products. This voluntary action is expected to be completed  
9      by mid 2011. Member States now have to communicate to the Commission the  
10     national legal measures they take to comply with the provisions of the directive.  
11     John Dalli, Commissioner in charge of Health and Consumer Policy, said: "March 1  
12     represents a landmark in our efforts to protect better the health of EU citizens, in  
13     particular when it comes to our children, following the precautionary principle. Due to  
14     the fact that there are uncertainties concerning the harmfulness of the exposure of  
15     infants to Bisphenol A, the Commission deemed it both necessary and appropriate to  
16     take action. The aim is to further reduce the exposure of the most vulnerable part of  
17     our population – i.e. the infants – to the substance thus safeguarding their health."

### 18     What is BPA?

19     BPA is an organic molecule that is used in the manufacture of polycarbonate plastics,  
20     which – in turn – are used to manufacture plastic materials, such as baby bottles.  
21     Small amounts of BPA can be released from plastic containers into the food they carry  
22     – in the case of baby bottles that would be infant formula – if these containers are  
23     heated at high temperatures.  
24     The infants' system is still building up to eliminate BPA during the first six months of  
25     their lives. Their exposure to the substance is the highest during this period especially  
26     if infant formula is their only source of nutrition as this is administered through baby  
27     bottles.

### 28     Background

29     At the end of March 2010, the Danish government banned temporarily the use of BPA  
30     in the manufacture of plastic materials coming in contact with food intended for  
31     children up to three years old. The Commission asked the European Food Safety  
32     Authority (EFSA) to assess the grounds on which Denmark banned BPA.  
33     In July 2010, France also announced a temporary ban on the manufacture, import,  
34     export and placing on the market of baby bottles containing BPA.  
35     EFSA delivered its opinion in September 2010. It concluded that Bisphenol A is safe  
36     up to a daily intake of 0.05 milligrams per kilo of bodyweight. The exposure of all  
37     groups of the population is below this limit. However, EFSA's panel also raised some  
38     questions with respect to the possible impact of BPA on infants, in particular, and  
39     concluded that this aspect requires further attention until more robust data on the areas  
40     of uncertainty becomes available.

For more information, please visit: [Directive 2011/8/EU](#)

**Translation instruction:**

Translate the Commission press release into Hungarian. It will be published on the official website of the European Commission Representation in Hungary in 2011 March ([http://ec.europa.eu/magyarország/press\\_room/index\\_hu.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/magyarország/press_room/index_hu.htm)). The main task of this institution is to provide information for the Hungarian media, social and economic actors and the broader public on the policies, major events, measures and opinions of the European Commission. The Hungarian text should reproduce all the information contained in the original, preserving its layout.

## Appendix G Answer to a written parliamentary question and translation instruction

### Background to the task: Written question by Mogens Camre (UEN) to the Commission

(13 February 2009)

Subject: Plucking of live geese in Hungary

On 1 February 2009, the Swedish TV channel, TV4, showed a programme in the channel's series of documentaries entitled '*Kalla Fakta*'. In the programme, a journalist equipped with a hidden camera paid a visit to a farm in southern Hungary which produces goose down for use in duvets and pillows, etc. The programme showed workers on the farm plucking feathers from live geese, which is extremely painful for the animals and prohibited in the EU.

The programme also claims that a representative of the German firm, Rhodex, which supplies down to numerous European companies, made an offer to a journalist – pretending to be a duvet producer interested in buying down – to draw up documentation in connection with a possible purchase to show – falsely – that the Hungarian down did not come from live geese.

The Commission should make a closer investigation of this case to clarify to what extent the allegations made in the above programme are credible. Cruelty to animals is a serious matter and, should the allegations prove to be true, the Commission must take steps to ensure that this form of cruelty is stopped.

Will the Commission take the initiative to investigate whether the allegations about the plucking of live geese on a farm in Hungary, made in a '*Kalla Fakta*' documentary broadcast on the Swedish TV channel, TV4, on 1 February 2009, are correct? If the allegations are substantiated, what steps will the Commission take to put an end to the plucking of live geese, which is prohibited in the EU?

### Translation task

#### 1 Answer given by Ms Vassiliou on behalf of the Commission (2 March 2009)

2 The Commission is aware of the Swedish TV broadcast which showed feathers being  
3 plucked from live geese in painful conditions.

4 The Commission considers, at first sight, that the way feathers were being plucked  
5 from the geese in this TV report constitutes a case of cruelty towards animals and does  
6 not comply with the provisions of Article 3 of Council Directive 98/58/EC. The  
7 Hungarian authorities share this view and have informed the Commission that they are  
8 investigating this case.

9 The Commission has requested information on the results of the investigation from the  
10 Hungarian authorities, additional information has also been requested on the results of  
11 the inspections required by Article 6 of Directive 98/58/EC and carried out in farms  
12 where geese are being kept for the production of down feathers or other products.

13 However, the Commission should point out that the practice of harvesting down

- 14 feathers from live geese is not forbidden by Community law. The Standing Committee  
15 of the European Convention for the Protection of Animals kept for Farming Purposes  
16 draws a distinction between plucking, which is forbidden, and harvesting, which is  
17 not. Harvesting down feathers consists in collecting the duvet when the feathers are  
18 'ripe'. The Commission has been informed that Hungary has adopted specific national  
19 provisions to ensure that minimum welfare requirements are applied during the  
20 harvesting.
- 21 To better evaluate the impact of this practice, the Commission has requested from  
22 Member States additional information on harvesting down feathers from geese.

**Translation instruction:**

Translate the answer to a written parliamentary question into Hungarian. Together with the written question, it will be published on the official website of the European Parliament in 2011 March (<http://www.europarl.europa.eu/plenary/en/parliamentary-questions.html>). The target audience of the website is members of the European Parliament, EU and national officials and politicians, and the general public. The Hungarian text should reproduce all the information contained in the original, preserving its layout.

## Appendix H News report and translation instruction

### 1 Treaty fight returns to haunt EU summit

24 October 2010, 15:05 CET [www.eubusiness.com](http://www.eubusiness.com)

2 (BRUSSELS) - A fractious European Union summit looms this week as the bloc heads  
 3 for a hard hurdle -- a fresh and risky rewrite of its treaty demanded by France and  
 4 Germany to shore up the euro.  
 5 Leaders of the 27-nation bloc face the challenge at a two-day summit starting  
 6 Thursday to turn the lessons of the 2008-2009 economic crisis into hard and fast rules  
 7 tightening debt and deficit discipline.  
 8 But a controversial Franco-German proposal issued days ago, denounced by many as a  
 9 "diktat", calls for the rules to be enshrined in a new draft of the hard-fought Lisbon  
 10 treaty, which came into force only last December after eight years of tough talks and  
 11 failed referenda.  
 12 "This is an extremely sensitive issue that frightens the life out of some nations," said a  
 13 senior EU diplomat. "It'll be the hot theme of the summit."  
 14 The notion of rewriting the fledgling treaty surfaced last week when French President  
 15 Nicolas Sarkozy and German Chancellor Angela Merkel plastered over their own  
 16 differences over economic governance in a sudden deal.  
 17 In efforts triggered by the emergency rescue of Greece and fears of a cascade of  
 18 national basket-cases, EU leaders had this year created a 440-billion-euro rescue fund  
 -19 - the European Financial Stability Facility (EFSF) -- set to expire in 2013.  
 20 Germany, which has been the biggest contributor to EU rescue efforts, favoured a  
 21 temporary fund to ensure reining in spendthrift nations.  
 22 But Merkel last week caved in to Sarkozy's call for the facility to be made permanent  
 23 to shore up Europe's monetary union, which dates back to 1999.  
 24 To meet the requirements of the German constitution, however, giving the EFSF  
 25 eternal life requires a change to the Lisbon treaty, which currently outlaws EU  
 26 member states from flying to the rescue of a bankrupt eurozone partner.  
 27 "The summit will have to indicate how to create a credible mechanism, given concerns  
 28 in Germany, which refuses to extend it unconditionally," the diplomat said.  
 29 Sarkozy for his part obtained a softening of already tentatively agreed sanctions  
 30 against deficit offenders, which were supposed to be automatic but now would be  
 31 more flexible while biting sooner.  
 32 The deal has raised hackles across the bloc of half a billion people.  
 33 "We're not happy with what the French and the Germans did," European Parliament  
 34 spokesman for economic affairs John Schranz told AFP as lawmakers too prepared to  
 35 mull the new rules this week.  
 36 "We want sanctions to be heavy-hitting and automatic" as opposed to the watered-  
 37 down vision agreed by Sarkozy and Merkel, he said.  
 38 The sanctions' climbdown has already been the subject of stern criticism from the  
 39 head of the European Central Bank, the formal guardian of euro stability.  
 40 Budgetary hawks also including the Netherlands, Sweden and Finland do not think the  
 41 proposed new rules go far enough.  
 42 Some in Berlin accuse Merkel of buckling, but others accuse EU finance ministers as a  
 43 whole of getting "cold feet".  
 44 "It is a step backwards," said Austrian conservative Othmar Karas.

45 Worries are high too of opening a new Pandora's Box in rewriting the Lisbon treaty,  
46 though some officials say the new rules could be simply written in when Croatia  
47 becomes the EU's 28th member -- which it hopes will be in 2012.  
48 But other members could pile up new demands in exchange for green-lighting the  
49 Franco-German accord.  
50 Non-euro Britain for example could come armed with a shopping list, even if senior  
51 EU officials insist sanctions will only apply to nations using the single currency.  
52 British Prime Minister David Cameron "will not support anything that involves a  
53 transfer of powers from Westminster to Brussels," a government spokesman said.  
54 While Britain ratified Lisbon without a referendum, Cameron is already planning to  
55 bring forward legislation that would make any further dilution of "sovereignty" an  
56 issue requiring popular assent.

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### **Translation instruction:**

Translate the following news report into Hungarian. The text will be published on the website of Figyelő, in the foreign press review section in March 2011 (<http://www.figyelo.hu/rovatok/lapszemle>). Figyelő is a Hungarian weekly business and economic journal, the target audience of which is primarily Hungarian business people. The foreign press review section contains business articles from various foreign journals. The Hungarian text should reproduce all the information contained in the original as well as a reference to the original source.

**Appendix I Interview questions (English translation)**

1. How difficult was it for you to translate the three texts? Can you rate the level of difficulty of each text on a scale from 1-4?
2. What difficulties did you have when translating these three texts?

## Appendix J Questionnaire for graduate students (English translation)

### Questionnaire for graduate students of the English bachelor's programme at Eszterházy Károly College, Eger, who completed the EU specialisation module (English translation)

#### Background information:

##### *Gender:*

- ☐ male
- ☐ female

##### *Age:*

##### *Place of residence (locality, country):*

##### *In which year did you obtain your BA degree in English studies with the EU specialisation track from Eszterházy Károly College, Eger?*

##### *In which type of programme did you complete your studies?*

- ☐ full time programme
- ☐ part-time programme
- ☐ I started in the full-time, but finished in the part-time programme
- ☐ I started in the part-time, but finished in the full-time programme

#### Questions:

##### *1. Did you continue your studies after receiving your BA degree?*

- ☐ yes, in a professional translator and/or interpreter training programme
- ☐ yes, in a different type of programme
- ☐ no

##### *2. In which institution and programme did you continue your studies?*

##### *3. In which institution and programme did you continue your studies?*



**4. Are you planning to enrol in a professional translator and/or interpreter training programme in the future?**

- ☐ yes
- ☐ no
- ☐ maybe

**5. Please, briefly justify your previous response.**

**6. Altogether how many years of work experience do you have?**

- ☐ more than 10 years
- ☐ 5-10 years
- ☐ 1-5 years
- ☐ I don't have work experience

**7. Are you currently employed?**

- ☐ yes
- ☐ no

**8. What kind of jobs have you had since getting your English BA at EKF?**

**9. Have you ever had to do written language mediation (translation) or oral language mediation (interpretation) tasks at the workplace?**

- ☐ yes
- ☐ no

**10. How often do/did you have to do written language mediation (translation) or oral language mediation (interpretation) from English into Hungarian or Hungarian into English in your jobs? Please, mark your response in the appropriate column.**

In translation and/or interpretation jobs

In other types of jobs

- ☐ very often
- ☐ often
- ☐ occasionally
- ☐ rarely

- ☐ very often
- ☐ often
- ☐ occasionally
- ☐ rarely

**11. What type of language mediation do you usually do?**

- ☐ only oral
- ☐ usually oral
- ☐ only written
- ☐ usually written
- ☐ both

**12. What is/was the most typical direction of mediation?**

- ☐ only from English into Hungarian
- ☐ usually from English into Hungarian
- ☐ only from Hungarian into English
- ☐ usually from Hungarian into English
- ☐ both directions are/were equally common

**13. What are the most common text topics that you have/had to translate in a written form (e.g., economics, natural sciences)?**

**14. What are the most common genres that you have/had to translate in a written form (e.g., formal letter)?**

**15. What are the most common situations in which you have/had to do oral translation?**

**16. Have you ever had to deal with English or Hungarian written texts with topics related to the EU?**

- ☐ yes
- ☐ no

**17. How often do/ did you meet English or Hungarian written texts with topics related to the EU?**

- ☐ very often
- ☐ often
- ☐ occasionally
- ☐ rarely

**18. What is/was the topic of these written EU-texts (e.g., economics)?**

**19. What is/was the genre of these written EU-texts (e.g., legislation)?**

**20. What is/was the most typical language of these texts?**

- ☐ English
- ☐ Hungarian
- ☐ both English and Hungarian

**21. In your work, have you ever had to translate EU-related texts in writing?**

- ☐ yes
- ☐ no

**22. How often do/did you have to translate EU-related texts in writing?**

In translation and/or interpretation jobs

- ☐ very often
- ☐ often
- ☐ occasionally
- ☐ rarely

In other types of jobs

- ☐ very often
- ☐ often
- ☐ occasionally
- ☐ rarely

**23. What is/was the genre of these texts?**

**24. What is/was the topic of these texts?**

**24. In your work, have you ever had to do oral translation in EU-related issues?**

- ☐ yes
- ☐ no

**25. How often do/did you have to do oral translation in EU-related issues?**

In translation and/or interpretation jobs

- ☐ very often
- ☐ often
- ☐ occasionally
- ☐ rarely

In other types of jobs

- ☐ very often
- ☐ often
- ☐ occasionally
- ☐ rarely

**26. In what situations do/did you have to do oral translation in EU-related issues?**

**27. Please, chose the alternative which best describes your opinion about the usefulness of the EU courses (EU1-EU6) within the English BA programme at EKF.**

- ☐ very useful
- ☐ useful
- ☐ neutral
- ☐ not useful
- ☐ not useful at all

**28. Please, briefly justify your previous response.**

**29. Please, chose the alternative which best describes your opinion about the usefulness of the specialised translation courses within the English BA programme at EKF.**

- ☐ very useful
- ☐ useful
- ☐ neutral
- ☐ not useful
- ☐ not useful at all

**30. Please, briefly justify your previous response.**

|  |
|--|
|  |
|--|

**31. Please, chose the alternative which best describes your opinion about the usefulness of the EU specialisation module within the English BA programme at EKF.**

- ☐ very useful
- ☐ useful
- ☐ neutral
- ☐ not useful
- ☐ not useful at all

## **Appendix K Questionnaire for teachers of translation in EU specialisation modules within the English BA programme**

### **Background information:**

1. How many years of teaching experience do you have in Hungarian higher education?
2. How long have you been teaching translation?
3. What qualification(s) do you hold?
4. Do you have translator and/or interpreter qualification? If so, what kind?
5. Do you have experience in translation or interpretation? If so, what kind and how long is your experience?
6. In what courses do you teach translation?

### **Questionnaire items**

1. Please, list the types of translation tasks that you use in your teaching, including whether you use whole texts, parts of texts, or sentences, whether it is oral or written translation, and where the students have to complete the translation, in class or at home (e.g., translating a 2-3-page long text at home, translating an unknown text in class orally, summarizing a page-long text in writing at home, etc.)
2. What do you think are the biggest advantages of the types of tasks that you use?
3. What text genres do you use in your teaching?
4. What are the subject matters of the texts that you use?
5. What criteria do you use when you select various text genres?
6. What criteria do you use when you select the text topics?
7. Do you use texts that are not official EU documents but have EU-related topics?
8. What genre(s) do these texts belong to?
9. What topic(s) do these texts have?
10. What do you think are the greatest benefits of using EU-texts (including official EU documents and other EU-related texts) in the English BA programme?
11. Do you use Hungarian texts in your teaching?
12. What genres do these texts belong to?
13. What topics do these texts have?
14. What kind of tasks do you use with Hungarian texts?
15. What do you think are the biggest advantages of using Hungarian texts?
16. Please, list the methods that you use to assess student translations, including who makes the assessment (teacher, peers, or the students themselves), whether the assessment is written or oral, and whether the assessment is in the form of a grade or textual feedback (e.g., written feedback given by the teacher, oral feedback given by the peers).
17. What do you think are the advantages and disadvantages of the different types of assessment that you use?
18. How are mistakes corrected? Please, briefly justify your answer.
19. Do you think it is necessary for someone teaching translation in the English BA programme to have translator or interpreter qualifications? Please, briefly justify your answer.
20. Do you think it is necessary for someone teaching translation in the English BA programme to have experience in translation and/or interpretation? Please, briefly justify your answer.
21. What is/are foreign language learners' biggest difficulties when they first translate?
22. What types of errors occur most typically in student translations at the beginning of the translation course?
23. How does learners' foreign language competence influence their translation competence?
24. How do you think learners' native language skills influence their translation competence?
25. Do you make any kind of needs analysis survey prior to the translation course? If so, please briefly describe its aims.
26. What do you think are the main benefits of EU translation courses integrated into the English BA programme?